

# EIGHTH YEARBOOK

OF THE NATIONAL ASSOCIATION OF  
SECONDARY-SCHOOL PRINCIPALS

NATIONAL ASSOCIATION OF  
SECONDARY-SCHOOL PRINCIPALS



# EIGHTH YEARBOOK

*of the* NATIONAL ASSOCIATION *of*  
SECONDARY-SCHOOL PRINCIPALS

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*Edited by*

H. V. CHURCH

*Secretary of the Association*

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Published by the Association 1924

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# EIGHTH YEARBOOK

OF THE NATIONAL ASSOCIATION  
OF SECONDARY SCHOOL PRINCIPALS

EDITED BY  
J. W. COBB  
Secretary of the Association

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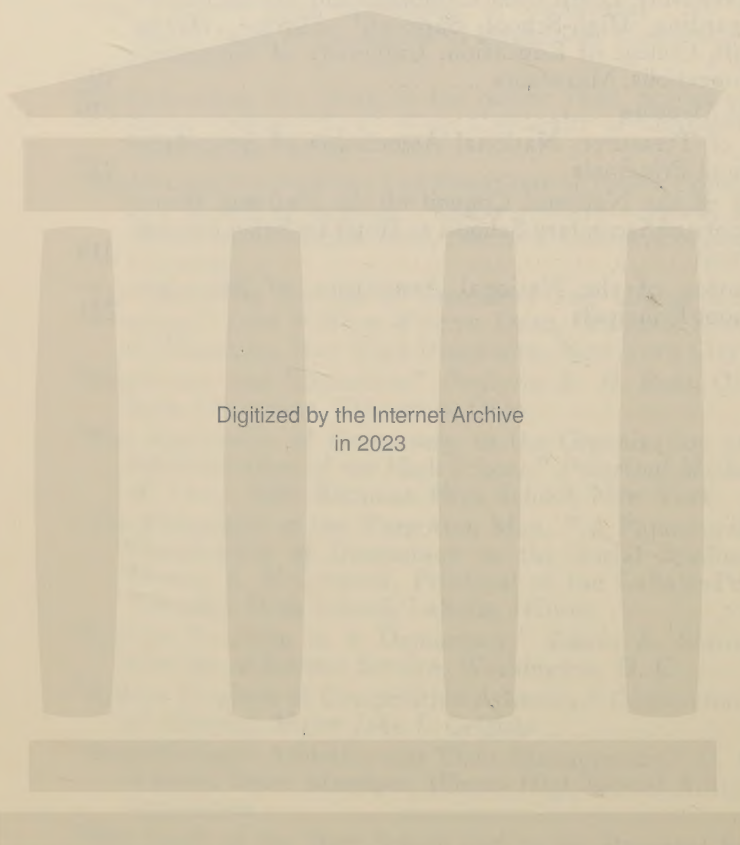
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## THE OFFICERS OF THE ASSOCIATION

1924-1925

*President:* L. W. BROOKS

Principal High School

Wichita, Kansas

*First Vice-President:* WILLIAM E. WING

Principal Deering High School

Portland, Maine

*Second Vice-President:* C. H. THRELKELD

Associate Superintendent of Schools

Denver, Colorado

*Secretary-Treasurer:* H. V. CHURCH

Principal of J. Sterling Morton High School

Cicero, Illinois

## THE EXECUTIVE COMMITTEE

CLAUDE P. BRIGGS

Lakewood High School

Lakewood, Ohio

MERLE PRUNTY

Principal of Central High School, Tulsa, Oklahoma

EDWARD RYNEARSON

Principal of Fifth Avenue High School

Pittsburgh, Pennsylvania



# DIRECTORY

## NATIONAL ASSOCIATION OF SECONDARY-SCHOOL PRINCIPALS

1924

- 1919 HARRY D. ABELLS, S.B., '97.  
1898, *Superintendent*, Morgan Park Military Academy; Morgan Park, Illinois.
- 1923 T. J. ABERNETHY, A.B., '17.  
1921, *Principal*, Ellsworth High School; Ellsworth, Maine.
- 1920 WALTER S. ADAMS, B.E., '20.  
1920, *Principal*, Delavan Community High School; Delavan, Illinois.
- 1922 LINCOLN J. AIKINS, A.B., '19.  
1921, *Principal*, Limington Academy; Limington, Maine.
- 1922 H. W. C. AINLEY, A.B., B.D.  
1922, *Principal*, Stanley Schools; Stanley, New Mexico.
- 1924 WAYNE M. AKIN, B.S., '18.  
1923, *Superintendent*, Sargent Consolidated School; Monte Vista, Colorado.
- 1923 D. M. ALEXANDER.  
Onaway, Michigan.
- 1924 H. E. ALEXANDER.  
Limerick, Maine.
- 1919 J. A. ALEXANDER, A.M., '16; A.M., '19.  
1920, *Superintendent*, Windsor Community High School; Windsor, Illinois.
- 1923 H. O. ALLEMAN.  
Vilas, Kansas.
- 1922 A. W. ALLEN.  
Eastport, Maine.
- 1923 CHARLES F. ALLEN.  
1610 Spring Street, Little Rock, Arkansas.
- 1924 JENNIE E. ALLEN.  
Philadelphia, Pennsylvania.
- 1923 SHELDON R. ALLEN.  
Lanark, Illinois.
- 1922 T. T. ALLEN, A.B., A.M.  
1918, *Superintendent of Schools*; Dubois, Pennsylvania.
- 1924 RALPH E. ALLEN.  
Ligonier, Indiana.
- 1923 W. H. ALLEN.  
East Millinocket, Maine.
- 1921 W. O. ALLEN, B.Ped., '10.  
1919, *Principal*, Washington Irving Junior High School; Des Moines, Iowa.
- 1923 W. S. ALLEN, A.B., '12; A.M., '15; Ph.D., '23.  
1919, *Professor of Secondary Education*, Baylor University; Waco, Texas.
- 1924 CARL W. ALLISON.  
Gilbert, Minnesota.

- 1922 R. Y. ALLISON.  
Pekin, Illinois.
- 1924 SISTER MARY ALOYSIUS, B.A., '19:  
1920, *Principal*, Villa de Chantal; Rock Island, Illinois.
- 1924 H. J. ALVIS.  
East St. Louis, Illinois.
- 1924 J. C. AMON.  
Bellevue, Pennsylvania.
- 1924 W. A. ANDERSON.  
Julesburg, Colorado.
- 1924 ROY R. ANDERSON.  
Cleveland, Tennessee.
- 1924 HAROLD P. ANDREWS.  
Winterport, Maine.
- 1923 (MRS.) GENEVIEVE H. ANDREWS.  
Glasco, Kansas.
- 1924 ADELBERT O. ANDREW.  
Cambria, California.
- 1923 EARL W. ANIBAL, Ph.B., '08; A.M., '23.  
1920, *Principal*, Senior and Junior High School; Glen Ridge,  
New Jersey.
- 1924 H. J. ANTHOLZ.  
Spooner, Wisconsin.
- 1921 A. E. ARENDT.  
Collinsville, Illinois.
- 1921 J. E. ARMSTRONG.  
*Principal*, Englewood High School; Chicago, Illinois.
- 1923 E. R. ARNDT.  
Strawn, Kansas.
- 1923 H. A. ARNOLD.  
Central High School, Sioux City, Iowa.
- 1922 HARRY R. ATKINSON.  
Battle Creek, Michigan.
- 1923 LOUIS B. AUSTIN, Ph.B., '97; A.M., '00; A.B., '04.  
1914, *Principal*, Business High School; Pittsburgh, Pennsylvania.
- 1918 JOHN M. AVERY, A.B., '14.  
1914, *Principal*, Public High School; Hillsboro, Illinois.
- 1923 PAUL H. AXTELL.  
Flemington, New Jersey.
- 1922 F. L. BACON, A.B., '12; A.M., '15.  
1922, *Principal*, Newton High School; Newtonville, Massachusetts.
- 1923 PAUL V. BACON.  
Boston, Massachusetts.
- 1923 GRACE W. BACKUS.  
East Junior High School; Warren, Ohio.
- 1922 H. G. BADGER.  
Ashmore, Illinois.
- 1918 W. C. BAER, A.B., '11.  
1913, *Principal*, Danville High School; Danville, Illinois.
- 1922 JOHN FRANKLIN BAILEY, A.B., '03; A.M., '04.  
1912, *Principal*, High School; Pittsburgh, Pennsylvania.



- 1922 ARTHUR C. BAIRD, A.B., '99.  
1918, *Vice Principal*, Fifth Avenue High School; Pittsburgh, Pennsylvania.
- 1922 WM. J. BAIRD, A.B., '18; A.M., '21.  
1921, *Principal*, Jefferson County High School; Boyles, Alabama.
- 1923 H. L. BAKER.  
Wellington, Kansas.
- 1924 RUSSELL D. BAKER.  
Casco, Maine.
- 1924 W. A. BALDAUF.  
Ely, Minnesota.
- 1924 E. W. BALDUF.  
Central Evening Preparatory; 19 S. LaSalle Street, Chicago, Illinois.
- 1921 H. V. BALDWIN.  
Fulton, Illinois.
- 1921 J. H. BALDWIN, B.S., '22.  
1922, *Principal*, Chrisman Township High School; Chrisman, Illinois.
- 1924 RICHARD R. BALKEMA.  
Aberdeen Washington.
- 1923 CLAUDE BARBER, B.A., '20; M.A., '21.  
1921, *Principal*, Hominy High School; Hominy, Oklahoma.
- 1924 FLOYD R. BARBER.  
Salmon, Idaho.
- 1924 W. H. BARKER.  
Chenoa, Illinois.
- 1923 JOSEPHINE BARNABY, B.Ph., '96.  
1916, *Principal*, Shaw High School; East Cleveland, Ohio.
- 1923 JOHN R. BARNES, A.B., '21; A.M., '23.  
1921, *Principal*, Lawrence Junior High School; Lawrence, Kansas.
- 1922 PERCIVAL BARNES, A.B., '17; A.M., '18.  
1919, *Superintendent of Schools*, East Hartford Public School; East Hartford, Connecticut.
- 1919 V. G. BARNES, Ph.B., '08.  
1915, *Principal*, Central High School; Madison, Wisconsin.
- 1921 J. W. BARNEY, A.B., '10.  
1920, *Principal*, Munising High School; Munising, Michigan.
- 1923 ANNA E. BARRETT, B.A., '18.  
1922, *Principal*, Lyons High School; Clinton, Iowa.
- 1924 ELLIS M. BARNETT.  
Sweetwater, Texas.
- 1923 A. J. BARTHOLOMEW, A.B., '16; A.M., '21.  
1918, *Principal*, Summit High School; Summit, New Jersey.
- 1924 C. H. BARTS.  
Pleasant Plains, Illinois.
- 1923 W. W. BASS.  
Cherryvale, Kansas.
- 1924 GEORGE A. BASSFORD.  
Ashland, Wisconsin.

- 1923 RALPH E. BATE.  
Chatham, New Jersey.
- 1924 ROLAND C. BATCHELDER.  
Stowe, Vermont.
- 1924 CHARLES S. BATES.  
N. Yarmouth Academy; Yarmouth, Maine.
- 1924 H. S. BATES.  
Petoskey, Michigan.
- 1921 L. W. BATES, B.S., '13.  
1920, *Principal*, High School; Cherokee, Iowa.
- 1924 W. H. BATSON.  
Vermilion, South Dakota.
- 1923 L. L. BEAHM.  
Delta, Colorado.
- 1918 R. G. BEALS, A.B., A.M.  
1922, *Principal*, DeKalb Township High School; DeKalb, Illinois.
- 1924 OREL M. BEAN.  
Woburn, Massachusetts.
- 1923 BANCROFT BEATLEY.  
6 Lawrence Hall, Harvard University; Cambridge, Massachusetts.
- 1924 E. C. O. BEATTY.  
Woodstock, Illinois.
- 1916 WILFRED F. BEARDSLEY, A.B., '93.  
1906, *Principal*, Evanston Township High School; 1704 Hinman Avenue, Evanston, Illinois.
- 1924 C. A. BEAVER.  
Yankton, South Dakota.
- 1922 W. E. BECK, B.S., '00; M.S., '02.  
1917, *Principal*, Iowa City High School; Iowa City, Iowa.
- 1918 ERNEST J. BECKER, A.B., '94; Ph.D., '98.  
1909, *Principal*, Eastern High School; Baltimore, Maryland.
- 1919 LULU G. BECKINGTON, A.B., '12.  
1918, *Principal*, Belvidere High School; 628 South State Street, Belvidere, Illinois.
- 1918 GRANT BEEBE, B.S., '88.  
1913, *Principal*, Calumet High School; 8025 Normal Avenue, Chicago, Illinois.
- 1920 R. E. BEEBE, A.B., '13; A.M., '16.  
1920, *Principal*, Township High School; Mendota, Illinois.
- 1923 H. H. BEECHER.  
St. Clair, Michigan.
- 1924 EDWIN MILTON BELLES.  
Devils Lake, North Dakota.
- 1921 P. E. BELTING, A.B., '12; A.M., '18; Ph.D., '19.  
1919, *Assistant Professor Secondary Education*, University of Illinois; Urbana, Illinois.
- 1920 FRANK A. BEN, A.B., '19; M.A., '22.  
1921, *Superintendent*, Hebron High School; Hebron, Illinois.
- 1922 JAMES F. BENCHAM.  
Kirkland, Illinois.

- 1924 J. F. BENHAM.  
Maple Park, Illinois.
- 1924 L. E. BENNETT.  
Homestead, Florida.
- 1922 ELMA H. BENTON, A.B., A.M.  
1919, *Principal*, Hosmer Hall; St. Louis, Missouri.
- 1924 EMIL BENTHACK.  
Arnold, Nebraska.
- 1923 LINDSLEY BEST.  
Plainfield, New Jersey.
- 1924 MARTHA BEST.  
Redford, Michigan.
- 1923 CHESTER W. BIDLEMAN.  
Offerle, Kansas.
- 1924 C. L. BIEDENBACH, A.B., '86; A.M., '93.  
1912, *Principal*, Senior High School; Berkeley, California.
- 1924 D. L. BIEMESDERFER.  
Mount Joy, Pennsylvania.
- 1918 FRED L. BIESTER, A.B., '14.  
1919, *Principal*, Glenbard Township High School; Glen Ellyn,  
Illinois.
- 1923 E. R. BIGGERS.  
Hartland Academy; Hartland, Maine.
- 1922 PAUL W. BIGLER.  
Hebron, Illinois.
- 1923 H. E. BINFORD.  
Brazil, Indiana.
- 1922 FOREST W. BINNION.  
Middletown, Illinois.
- 1924 E. F. BURCKHEAD.  
Winchester, Kentucky.
- 1923 ELIZABETH BISBEE.  
Manning, Iowa.
- 1924 HERMAN D. BISHOP.  
McConnelsville, Ohio.
- 1919 F. L. BLACK, A.M., '08.  
1922, *Principal*, Princeton Township High School; Princeton,  
Illinois.
- 1919 H. B. BLACK, B.S., '11.  
1921, *Superintendent*, Mattoon City Schools; Mattoon, Illinois.
- 1921 R. E. BLACK.  
Sesser, Illinois.
- 1922 WARD N. BLACK, A.B., '12.  
1921, *Principal*, Georgetown Township High School; George-  
town, Illinois.
- 1916 H. E. BLAINE.  
Joplin, Missouri.
- 1923 JOSEPH E. BLAISDELL.  
Belgrade, Maine.
- 1923 H. A. BLAKE, A.B., '02.  
1919, *Principal*, N. H. Fay High School; Dexter, Maine.
- 1922 H. W. BLANCHARD.  
Tamaroa, Illinois.

- 1924 HUGH W. BLANCHARD.  
R. W. Traip Academy; Kittery, Maine.
- 1924 ROBERT H. BLEE.  
Puente, California.
- 1923 F. L. BLISS.  
Jackson, Michigan.
- 1916 LOUIS J. BLOCK, A.B., '68; A.M., '72; Ph.D., '82.  
1895, *Principal*, John Marshall High School; 3250 W. Adams  
Street, Chicago, Illinois.
- 1923 H. G. BLUE.  
Greeley, Colorado.
- 1924 H. J. BLUE.  
Carlinville, Illinois.
- 1924 A. G. BOBBITT.  
Oak Park, Illinois.
- 1924 OSCAR L. BOCHSTAHLER.  
Palestine, Illinois.
- 1924 B. A. BOESE.  
Hurley, South Dakota.
- 1916 WM. J. BOGAN, Ph.B., '09.  
1905, *Principal*, Lane Technical School; 1225 Sedgwick Street,  
Chicago, Illinois.
- 1924 A. W. BOLEY.  
Cooksville, Illinois.
- 1924 GLADYS BOLLER.  
*Principal*, High School; Elkhart, Iowa.
- 1923 C. F. BOLT.  
Muskegon Heights, Michigan.
- 1922 B. F. BORING, Willow Hill, Illinois.
- 1921 JOHN H. BOSSHART, A.B., '02.  
1920, *Principal*, Columbia High School; South Orange, New  
Jersey.
- 1924 F. H. BOSSE.  
Evansville, Indiana.
- 1921 A. W. BOSTON.  
Westbrook, Maine.
- 1920 CLARENCE W. BOSWORTH, A.B., '09; A.M., '10.  
1917, *Principal*, Cranston High School; Auburn, Rhode Island.
- 1916 E. O. BOTTENFIELD, Ph.B., '16.  
1916, *Principal*, Sparta Township High School; 501 N. Vine  
Street, Sparta, Illinois.
- 1923 JAMES C. BOUDREAU.  
1920, *Director of Art*, Board of Public Education; 716 Fulton  
Building, Pittsburgh, Pennsylvania.
- 1922 J. R. BOUTON.  
Sidell, Illinois.
- 1919 B. R. BOWDEN, Ph.B., '17; Ph.M., '18.  
1917, *Superintendent of Schools, Principal*, Community High  
School; Gilman, Illinois.
- 1922 R. D. BOWDEN.  
Havana, Illinois.
- 1923 HAROLD E. BOWIE.  
Harmony, Maine.

- 1923 H. E. BOWMAN.  
Lisbon Falls, Maine.
- 1924 D. L. BOYD.  
Carmi, Illinois.
- 1924 E. L. BOYD.  
Carmi, Illinois.
- 1924 HUGH J. BOYD.  
Portland, Oregon.
- 1924 EDWIN M. BOYNE.  
Midland, Michigan.
- 1918 E. L. BOYER.  
*Principal*, Bloom Township High School; Chicago Heights,  
Illinois.
- 1924 EDWIN M. BOYNE.  
Midland, Michigan.
- 1921 RAY H. BRACEWELL, B.S., '15.  
1919, *Principal*, High School; Burlington, Iowa.
- 1917 CHARLES A. BRADLEY, U. S. Military Academy, '77; D.Sc., '16.  
1893, *Principal*, Manual Training High School; 2243 Race  
Street, Denver, Colorado.
- 1924 MARIE T. BRADLEY.  
Malden, Illinois.
- 1920 S. M. BRAME, A.B., '02.  
1909, *Principal*, Bolton High School; Alexandria, Louisiana.
- 1924 CLIFFORD S. BRAGDON.  
New Rochelle, New York.
- 1919 H. D. BRASEFIELD, Ph.B., '91.  
1917, *Principal*, Fremont High School; 460 Hanover Avenue,  
Oakland, California.
- 1924 E. W. BRAMMELL.  
Downs, Kansas.
- 1922 JAMES F. BRASHEARS.  
1919, *Superintendent*, Community Consolidated; Joy, Illinois.
- 1924 J. J. BREHM.  
*Principal*, Camp Curtis Junior High School; Harrisburg,  
Pennsylvania.
- 1916 JACOB P. BREIDINGER, A.B., '85; A.M., '88.  
1901, *Principal*, High School; 15 North Franklin Street,  
Wilkes-Barre, Pennsylvania.
- 1924 J. J. BREHM.  
Harrisburg, Pennsylvania.
- 1923 REV. R. H. BRENNECKE, JR.  
Moravian Preparatory School; Bethlehem, Pennsylvania.
- 1921 J. H. BRENNEMAN, B.A., '04; B.A., '20.  
1920, *Principal*, High School; 713 North Fifth Street, Ottumwa,  
Iowa.
- 1923 R. J. BRETNALL.  
Boulder, Colorado.
- 1917 FRANCIS A. BRICK, A.B., '96.  
1917, *Principal*, Bayonne High School; Bayonne, New Jersey.
- 1922 R. P. BRIEGEL.  
Columbia, Illinois.

- 1916 C. P. BRIGGS, A.B., '01.  
1920, *Principal*, Lakewood High School; Lakewood, Ohio.
- 1920 EUGENE S. BRIGGS.  
Okmulgee, Oklahoma.
- 1916 THOMAS H. BRIGGS, Ph.D., '14.  
1915, *Professor of Education*, Teachers College, Columbia University; 525 West 120th Street, New York City, New York.
- 1920 L. O. BRIGHT, A.B.  
1920, *Principal*, Antioch Township High School; Antioch, Illinois.
- 1920 J. H. BRILL, A.B., '14.  
1920, *Superintendent of Schools*, Bement Public Schools; Bement, Illinois.
- 1920 A. B. BRISTOW, B.A., '05; M.A., '15.  
1920, *Principal*, Matthew Fontaine Maury High School; Norfolk, Virginia.
- 1924 K. O. BROADY.  
Lincoln, Kansas.
- 1923 EVA J. BROKAW.  
Clarinda, Iowa.
- 1924 EDGAR J. BRONG.  
Fillmore, New York.
- 1916 L. W. BROOKS, A.B., '03; A.M., '15.  
1919, *Principal*, Wichita High School; Wichita, Kansas.
- 1922 ALFRED O. BROWN.  
Public School Publishing Company; Bloomington, Illinois.
- 1923 C. A. BROWN.  
Abbott, Maine.
- 1916 EDWARD L. BROWN, A.B., '86; A.M., '90; Lit.D., '14.  
1898, *Principal*, North Side High School; 3324 Zuni Street, Denver, Colorado.
- 1924 EMMA M. BROWN.  
Denver, Colorado.
- 1918 GEORGE A. BROWN, C.E., '81.  
1897, *Managing Editor*, "School and Home Education"; Bloomington, Illinois.
- 1924 HAZEL I. BROWN.  
Milford, Iowa.
- 1924 LELAND P. BROWN.  
Olympia, Washington.
- 1923 M. L. BROWN, B.S., '14.  
1920, *Principal*, High School; Corry, Pennsylvania.
- 1923 M. O. BROWN, B.P., '06.  
1921, *Principal*, Larned High School, Larned, Kansas.
- 1922 RICE E. BROWN, A.B., '08; A.M., '23.  
1918, *Principal*, Emporia High School; Emporia, Kansas.
- 1922 R. G. BROWN.  
Armstrong, Illinois.
- 1924 R. R. BROWN.  
Montrose, Colorado.
- 1920 V. I. BROWN, A.B., '19.  
1920, *Principal*, Community High School; Watseka, Illinois.

- 1924 W. M. H. BROWN.  
Amherst, Massachusetts.
- 1924 W. L. BROWN.  
New Trier High School; Kenilworth, Illinois.
- 1920 WALKER N. BROWN.  
East High School; Peoria, Illinois.
- 1924 W. W. BROWN.  
Janesville, Wisconsin.
- 1924 EMMA M. BROWN, M.A., '22.  
1922, *Principal*, Skinner Junior High School; Denver, Colorado.
- 1924 E. E. BROWNELL.  
Gilroy, California.
- 1923 HAROLD T. BROWNING.  
Wayne, Michigan.
- 1924 GUY W. BRUBAKER, A.B., '13; A.M., '15.  
1923, *Principal*, Bent County High School; Las Animas, Colorado.
- 1924 M. E. BRUCE.  
East St. Louis, Illinois.
- 1924 L. S. BRUMBAUGH.  
Kendallville, Indiana.
- 1924 R. D. BRUNUNETT.  
Greenville, Illinois.
- 1921 GEORGE F. L. BRYANT, B.S., '17.  
Limestone, Maine.
- 1924 W. E. BUCHANAN.  
East Lansing, Michigan.
- 1916 GEORGE BUCK, A.B., '91; A.M., '01.  
1910, *Principal*, Shortridge High School; Michigan and Penn  
Street, Indianapolis, Indiana.
- 1923 W. E. BUCKEY.  
Fairmont, West Virginia.
- 1918 B. R. BUCKINGHAM, Ph.B., '01; Ph.D., '13.  
1921, *Director of Educational Research*, Ohio State University;  
Columbus, Ohio.
- 1920 J. B. BUCKLER.  
Minonk, Illinois.
- 1922 CHESTER A. BUCKNER, A.B., '09; A.M., '11; Ph.D., '18.  
1920, School of Education, University of Pittsburgh; Pitts-  
burgh, Pennsylvania.
- 1923 E. W. BUFFON.  
Netawaka, Kansas.
- 1917 P. C. BUNN, Ph.B., '09.  
1914, *Principal*, High School; 860 Sixth Street, Lorain, Ohio.
- 1921 HARRY H. BURNHAM.  
Biddeford, Maine.
- 1920 REV. A. J. BURNS.  
Sterling, Illinois.
- 1923 PRINCIPAL BURNS.  
Cliffside, New Jersey.
- 1924 R. A. BURNS.  
Rockport, Maine.



- 1923 CLARA S. BURROUGH.  
1899, *Principal*, Camden High School; Camden, New Jersey.
- 1924 WINIFRED BURROUGHS.  
Sturgis, Michigan.
- 1923 CHARLES BURSCH, B.S., '18.  
1921, *Principal*, Riley Rural High School; Riley, Kansas.
- 1917 ALDEN JAMES BURTON, A.B., '08; M.A., '22.  
1918, *Principal*, East High School; Des Moines, Iowa.
- 1923 CARL D. BURTT, A.B., '93.  
1920, *Principal*, Cleveland Heights High School; Cleveland Heights, Ohio.
- 1921 RALPH H. BUSH, A.B., '11; A.M., '14; J.D., 19.  
1914, *Assistant Principal*, Joliet Township High School and Junior College; Joliet, Illinois.
- 1924 ELI C. BUSING.  
Haubstadt, Indiana.
- 1922 CHARLES H. BUTLER, Ph.B., '20; M.A., '21.  
1921, *Principal*, Chauncey L. Higbee High School; Pittsfield, Illinois.
- 1924 J. J. BUTLER.  
Lewiston, Maine.
- 1923 JOS. S. BUTTERWECK.  
Haddon Heights, New Jersey.
- 1920 C. C. BYERLY.  
Princeville, Illinois.
- 1920 LEE BYRNE, A.B., A.M., '17; Ph.D.  
30 South Governor Street, Iowa City, Iowa.
- 1922 W. H. CAIN, A.B., '12.  
1920, *Principal*, Western State Normal High School; 717 West Lovell St., Kalamazoo, Michigan.
- 1924 A. G. CALDWELL.  
Canton, Illinois.
- 1923 OTIS W. CALDWELL, Ph.D., '98; LL.D., '17.  
1917, *Professor of Education*, Lincoln School of Teachers' College; 425 W. 123rd Street, New York City, New York.
- 1924 SISTER M. CALLISTA.  
Orona Catholic High School; Orona, Maine.
- 1923 FRANCES M. CAMP.  
Eagle Grove, Iowa.
- 1923 WILLIAM CAMPBELL.  
Pratt, Kansas.
- 1924 CHARLES H. CANNON.  
Bird City, Kansas.
- 1922 GEORGE N. CARMAN, A.B., '81; A.M., '06.  
1895, *Director*, Lewis Institute; Chicago, Illinois.
- 1923 J. B. CARPENTER, A.B., '02; A.M., '20.  
1918, *Principal*, Louisville Male High School; Louisville, Ky.
- 1924 ROLAND J. CARPENTER.  
Mapleton, Maine.
- 1919 J. W. CARRINGTON.  
Homer, Illinois.
- 1924 OLIVE B. CARR.  
Brighton, Colorado.



- 1922 R. B. CARSON.  
Milledgeville, Illinois.
- 1923 D. M. CARTER.  
Sawyer, Kansas.
- 1923 E. S. CARTER.  
Port Arthur, Texas.
- 1923 J. FRANK CARTER.  
Stevens High School; Rumford, Maine.
- 1920 JOHN LINTON CARVER, B.L., '93; A.M., '03; Ph.D., '05.  
1917, *Principal*, Friends' Seminary; 226 East Sixteenth Street,  
New York.
- 1923 JOHN C. CASEY, B.S., '08; A.M., '09.  
1922, *Superintendent of Schools*, Eaton Public Schools; Eaton,  
Colorado.
- 1921 J. W. CASTELO.  
LaMoille, Illinois.
- 1923 WILLIAM E. CATE, A.B., '95.  
1911, *Principal*, Chattel High School; Long Branch, New  
Jersey.
- 1923 Central Catholic High School; Toledo, Ohio.
- 1919 THOMAS C. CHAFFEE, A.B., '02.  
1914, *Principal*, Gardiner High School; 216 Brunswick Ave.,  
Gardiner, Maine.
- 1924 J. R. CHANDLER.  
Pawhuska, Oklahoma.
- 1922 H. E. CHANDLER, A.B., '11.  
1915, *Principal*, Senior High School; Junction City, Kansas.
- 1919 LEO E. CHANGNON.  
1919, *Principal*, Donovan Township High School; Donovan,  
Illinois.
- 1924 G. E. CHAPIN.  
Whitehall, Michigan.
- 1922 IRA T. CHAPMAN, A.B.; A.M.  
1917, *Superintendent of Schools*; New Brunswick, New Jersey.
- 1922 IVAN CHAPMAN.  
Western High School; Detroit, Michigan.
- 1923 H. W. CHARLESWORTH, A.B., '22.  
1922, *Superintendent*, Eads Public School; Eads, Colorado.
- 1919 L. W. CHATHAM, B.S., '10; M.S., '17.  
1919, *Principal*, Pana Township High School; Pana, Illinois.
- 1924 A. B. CHESTERTON.  
Abbott, Maine.
- 1917 JOHN O. CHEWNING, A.B., '01.  
1916, *Principal*, Central High School; Sixth and Vine Sts.,  
Evansville, Indiana.
- 1923 A. CHICK.  
Monmouth Academy; Monmouth, Maine.
- 1916 HARRY VICTOR CHURCH, Ph.B., '94.  
1899, *Principal*, J. Sterling Morton High School; Twenty-fifth  
St. and Austin Blvd., Cicero, Illinois.
- 1924 LELA B. CHILDS.  
Sandusky, Michigan.

- 1919 A. L. CLARK, B.S., '93.  
1906, *Agent*, American Book Company, Des Moines, Iowa.
- 1924 AUBUY M. CHISHOLM.  
Collinsville, Pennsylvania.
- 1924 L. T. CLARK.  
*Principal*, Woodland High School; Woodland, Illinois.
- 1924 CLARENCE CLARK.  
Hopkinsville, Kentucky.
- 1924 C. A. CLARK.  
Fairview, Kansas.
- 1922 T. M. CLAY.  
1921, *Principal*, Caro High School; Caro, Michigan.
- 1922 A. B. CLOSE, B.S., '21.  
1922, *Principal*, Taylorville Township High School; Taylorville, Illinois.
- 1922 G. F. CLOSE.  
Woodhull, Illinois.
- 1924 ROBERT J. CLUNIE.  
Newcastle, Maine.
- 1921 HAROLD P. COBB, B.A., '13.  
1921, *Principal*, Windham High School; South Windham, Maine.
- 1921 JOHN L. COBB.  
Lostant, Illinois.
- 1923 E. T. COCKRELL, A.B., '12; A.M., '16.  
1919, *Principal*, Collinwood Jr. High School; Cleveland, Ohio.
- 1923 H. J. COLBURN.  
Washburn High School; Topeka, Kansas.
- 1922 C. F. COLE, Ph.B.  
1907, *Principal*, Fairmont High School, Fairmont, West Virginia.
- 1924 E. E. COLLINS.  
Meckling, South Dakota.
- 1920 G. R. COLLINS, B.S., '17.  
1919, *Principal*, Westville Township High School; Westville, Illinois.
- 1923 B. F. COMFORT, M.A., '23.  
1907, *Principal*, Cass Technical High School; Detroit, Michigan.
- 1923 HOWARD CONANT, A.B., '92; A.M., '98.  
1906, *Principal*, High School; Holyoke, Massachusetts.
- 1924 E. K. CONGRAM.  
East Lynn, Illinois.
- 1922 E. M. CONKLIN.  
Marshall, Michigan.
- 1922 WILLIAM L. CONNOR, A.B., '14.  
1920, *Principal*, Longwood High School; 432 East 109th St., Cleveland, Ohio.
- 1921 A. F. COOK, A.B., '10.  
1919, *Superintendent of Schools*, Hinsdale Township High School; Hinsdale, Illinois.
- 1916 R. R. COOK, A.B., '08; A.M., '22.  
1923, *Principal*, Theodore Roosevelt High School; Des Moines, Iowa.

- 1924 W. A. COOK.  
Vermilion, South Dakota.
- 1923 FLORA J. COOKE.  
616 York Place, Chicago, Illinois.
- 1917 WALTER FRANCIS COOLIDGE, A.B., '99; A.M., '01; A.M., '14.  
1913, *Principal*, Granite City High School; Granite City,  
Illinois.
- 1924 J. D. COOMBS.  
Lisbon, Maine.
- 1921 WARREN C. COOMBS, A.B., '14.  
1916, *Principal*, Livermore Falls High School, Livermore Falls,  
Maine.
- 1924 GRACE COOPER, A.B., '17.  
1917, *Preceptress*, High School, Marshalltown, Iowa.
- 1924 JOHN P. CORCORAN.  
Osborne, Kansas.
- 1923 ALBERT E. CORFMAN, A.B., '19; M.A., '22.  
1922, *Principal*, Jr. and Sr. High School; Victor, Colorado.
- 1922 J. H. CORNS, A.B., '01; A.M., '16.  
1917, *Principal*, Southeastern High School; Detroit, Michigan.
- 1922 E. D. CORNWELL.  
Greenup, Illinois.
- 1923 JOHN J. COREY.  
*Principal*, South Side High School; Denver, Colorado.
- 1924 G. F. CORIELL.  
Dunlap, Illinois.
- 1924 VINCENT I. CORRELL.  
North Platte, Nebraska.
- 1923 FRED M. COTTRILL, A.B., '16.  
1920, *Principal*, Salem High School; Salem, West Virginia.
- 1924 HOMER C. COUCH.  
Cedar Rapids, Iowa.
- 1921 ANNA E. COUGHLIN.  
1915, *Principal*, Rockland High School; Rockland, Maine.
- 1924 L. M. COULTAS.  
Winchester, Illinois.
- 1920 H. M. COULTRAP, A.B., '08; A.M., '14.  
1912, *Superintendent of Schools*; Geneva, Illinois.
- 1922 GEORGE S. COUNTS, A.B., '11; Ph.D., '16.  
1920, *Associate Professor of Secondary Education*, Yale Uni-  
versity, New Haven, Connecticut.
- 1924 W. H. COUTS.  
Alvin, Illinois.
- 1919 PHILIP W. L. COX, A.B., '05.  
1922, *Principal*, Junior-Senior High School, Lincoln School,  
Teachers College; New York.
- 1917 JOHN A. CRAIG, A.B., '09; A.M., '10.  
1915, *Principal*, Muskegon High and Hackley Manual Training  
School; 178 W. Webster Ave., Muskegon, Michigan.
- 1923 (MRS.) E. B. CRAIN, A.B., '12.  
1922, *Principal*, High School; Mankato, Kansas.
- 1924 EDITH CRANE.  
Royal Oak, Michigan.

- 1923 HELEN B. CRANE.  
East Lansing, Michigan.
- 1922 PERCY F. CRANE.  
Washington Academy, East Machias, Maine.
- 1919 J. H. CRANN, B.Sc., '06.  
1918, *Principal*, York Community High School; Elmhurst,  
Illinois.
- 1923 T. T. CRANNY.  
Grinnell, Iowa.
- 1918 J. R. CRANOR.  
Sandwich, Illinois.
- 1924 A. R. CRAWFORD.  
Newaygo, Michigan.
- 1923 R. R. CRIE.  
Ault, Colorado.
- 1924 R. CROMWELL.  
Peoria, Illinois.
- 1922 FRED H. CRONINGER, B.S., '05.  
1921, *Principal*, High School; Fort Wayne, Indiana.
- 1921 H. E. CROOKER, A.B., '17.  
1920, *Headmaster*, Berwick Academy, South Berwick, Maine.
- 1924 W. F. CROSSWHITE.  
Wichita, Kansas.
- 1922 C. CROUSE.  
1920, *Superintendent of Schools*; Lebanon, Illinois.
- 1922 M. M. CRUFT.  
Virginia, Illinois.
- 1922 J. A. CULLEN.  
1920, School of Industrial Arts; Mt. Vernon, New York.
- 1923 C. L. CULLER, A.B., '17; M.A., '18.  
1922, *Principal*, Whittier Junior High School; Lincoln, Ne-  
braska.
- 1920 H. H. CULLY, A.B., '87.  
1905, *Principal*, Glenville High School; Cleveland, Ohio.
- 1924 COSBI CUMMINGS.  
1918, *Principal*, Junior High School; Clinton, Iowa.
- 1924 C. C. CURRAN.  
Lead, South Dakota.
- 1923 R. E. CUSTER.  
Gove, Kansas.
- 1922 EDWIN J. DAHL, B.S., '21.  
1921, *Principal*, High School; Moorhead, Minnesota.
- 1924 A. M. DARNELL.  
Topeka, Kansas.
- 1919 JAMES D. DARNELL, A.B., '16; M.A., '17.  
1919, *Principal*, Township High School; Geneseo, Illinois.
- 1923 FREEMAN DAUGHTERS, B.A., '96; S.T.B., '03; M.A., '15.  
1915, *Professor of Education*, State University of Montana;  
Missoula, Montana.
- 1924 FRANK H. DAVIDSON, A.B., '20.  
1923, *Principal*, Leadville High School; Leadville, Colorado.
- 1924 R. L. DAVIDSON, JR.  
Nevada, Missouri.

- 1923 ALBERT DAVIS.  
Englewood, New Jersey.
- 1922 CALVIN O. DAVIS, A.B., '95; A.M., '04; Ph.D., '10.
- 1924 JOHN E. DAVIS.  
Ecorse, Michigan.  
1905, *Professor of Secondary Education*, University of Michigan; Ann Arbor, Michigan.
- 1923 E. O. DAVIS, B.A., '21.  
1921, *Principal*, Stillwater Senior High School; Stillwater, Oklahoma.
- 1917 GEORGE E. DAVIS, B.A., '02; M.A., '07.  
1919, *Principal*, Walnut Hills High School; Cincinnati, Ohio.
- 1923 GEORGE EMERSON DAVIS, B.A., '17; M.A., '19.  
1921, *Principal*, Keokuk High School; Keokuk, Iowa.
- 1922 NETTIE M. DAVIS.  
Horton, Kansas.
- 1922 L. O. DAWSON, Ph.B., '20.  
1922, *Superintendent of Schools*; Stronghurst, Illinois.
- 1917 THOMAS M. DEAM, A.B., '08; A.M., '15.  
1916, *Principal*, Decatur High School; Decatur, Illinois.
- 1919 H. A. DEAN.  
*Superintendent of Schools*; Crystal Lake, Illinois.
- 1920 CHARLES E. DECKER, A.B., '14; M.A., '19.  
1920, *Superintendent of Schools*, Kewanee, Illinois.
- 1919 E. M. DEEM.  
Gurnee, Illinois.
- 1923 O. F. DEETZ.  
Galion, Ohio.
- 1923 (MRS.) KATHERINE DE FERRIN.  
Corunna, Michigan.
- 1924 HAROLD N. DEMPSEY.  
Mt. Desert, Maine.
- 1924 C. F. DENGLE.  
Shickshinny, Pennsylvania.
- 1924 C. H. DIXON.  
Yorkville, Illinois.
- 1924 R. E. DEVORE.  
Dodge City, Kansas.
- 1924 CHESTER C. DODGE, M.D., '87.  
1917, *Principal*, Hibbard High School; 125 N. Sacramento Blvd., Chicago, Illinois.
- 1924 HENRY DE YOUNG.  
Colfax, Washington.
- 1921 J. T. DORRIS.  
Waverly, Illinois.
- 1923 R. B. DOW.  
Belgrade, Maine.
- 1917 JAMES E. DOWNEY, A.B., '97; A.M., '13.  
1910, *Headmaster*, High School of Commerce; Boston, Massachusetts.
- 1923 MARSHALL W. DOWNING, A.B., '94.  
1910, *Principal*, North High School; Syracuse, New York.

xxvi *National Association of Secondary-School Principals*

- 1920 OTTO F. DUBACH, Ph.B., '98; Ph.M., '06.  
1920, *Principal*, Central High School; Kansas City, Missouri.
- 1924 C. H. DUKER.  
McHenry, Illinois.
- 1920 F. J. DUFRAIN, A.B., '16.  
1921, *Principal*, High School; Pontiac, Michigan.
- 1922 NEAL DUNCAN.  
Milledgeville, Illinois.
- 1924 F. W. DUNLAP.  
LaFayette, Illinois.
- 1921 SMITH DUNNACK.  
Somerset Academy, Athens, Maine.
- 1923 D. K. DUNTON, A.B., '94.  
1912, *Principal*, Central High School; Pueblo, Colorado.
- 1922 HERBERT L. DYAR, A.B., '05.  
1921, *Principal*, Washburn Township High School; Washburn, Illinois.
- 1924 F. S. EAKELEY.  
San Antonio, Texas.
- 1923 F. L. EARLY.  
Buchanan, Michigan.
- 1924 W. I. EARLY.  
Sioux Falls, South Dakota.
- 1924 JAMES A. EASTWOOD.  
De Soto, Kansas.
- 1916 E. J. EATON, A.B., '04; A.M., '19.  
1920, *Principal*, South High School; Youngstown, Ohio.
- 1922 LIDA M. EBBERT, Ph.B., '08; A.M., '21.  
1910, *Principal*, Linden High School; Linden, New Jersey.
- 1923 MILDRED EBERT.  
New Hampton, Iowa.
- 1918 SILAS ECHOLS, B.A., '05.  
1915, *Principal*, High School; 612 Broadway, Mt. Vernon, Illinois.
- 1924 RAYMOND B. EDDY.  
Otisville, Orange County, New York.
- 1924 F. S. EDWARDS.  
Marshall, Illinois.
- 1924 A. J. EICKEN.  
Golden, Illinois.
- 1923 E. R. ELLIAN, Ph.B., '17.  
1922, *Principal*, High School; Fond du Lac, Wisconsin.
- 1918 CARLOS B. ELLIS.  
1910, *Principal*, High School of Commerce; Springfield, Massachusetts.
- 1924 J. B. ELY.  
Fillmore, California.
- 1922 MARTHA E. EMRY.  
1921, *Principal*, Fairfield High School; Fairfield, Iowa.
- 1924 J. L. ENGELHARDT.  
Ness City, Kansas.
- 1923 EDNA WHITE ERNST.  
Wapello, Iowa.

- 1922 S. D. ERWINE, B.S., '11; M.A., '16.  
1922, *Principal*, McLean Community High School; McLean, Illinois.
- 1924 J. W. ESBENSHADE, A.B., '03.  
1923, *Principal*, Lebanon High School; Lebanon, Pennsylvania.
- 1918 FRANK S. ESPEY.  
1916, *Principal*, Roberts High School; *Superintendent of Grade Schools*; Roberts, Illinois.
- 1924 GEORGE W. EUTSLER.  
Ivy, Virginia.
- 1921 ALBERT W. EVANS, S.B., '05; S.M., '08.  
1920, *Principal*, Wendell Phillips High School; 244 East Pershing Road, Chicago, Illinois.
- 1922 GEORGE W. EVANS, A.B., '83.  
1905, *Headmaster*, Charlestown High School; Lynn, Massachusetts.
- 1922 H. E. EVELAND.  
Fisher, Illinois.
- 1916 CHARLES D. EVERETT, A.B., '80; A.M., '93.  
1893, *Principal*, North High School; Fourth and Dennison Avenue, Columbus, Ohio.
- 1922 D. M. ERING, B.S., '22.  
1922, *Principal*, Crystal Lake Community High School; Crystal Lake, Illinois.
- 1924 R. H. EWING.  
Blaine, Washington.
- 1924 D. B. FAGER.  
Blandinsville, Illinois.
- 1918 CHARLES B. FAGER, JR., A.M., '93; M.D., '93; Sc.D., '11.  
1905, *Principal*, Technical High School; Harrisburg, Pennsylvania.
- 1924 C. F. FAHRNROFF.  
Allerton, Illinois.
- 1924 R. W. FAIRCHILD.  
Elgin, Illinois.
- 1924 BEN C. FAIRMAN.  
St. Johns, Michigan.
- 1923 E. F. FANNON.  
Centerville, Iowa.
- 1919 ELIZABETH FAULKNER, A.B., '85.  
1909, *Principal*, The Faulkner School; 4746 Dorchester Avenue, Chicago, Illinois.
- 1919 N. R. FEASLEY, A.B., '14.  
Downers Grove, Illinois.
- 1918 BEULAH A. FENIMORE, B.S., '16; F.R.S.  
1917, *Principal*, Kensington High School; Cumberland and Amber Streets, Philadelphia, Pennsylvania.
- 1923 HAROLD A. FERGUSON, A.B., '14; A.M., '16.  
1921, *Principal*, Central High School; Akron, Ohio.
- 1922 F. E. FICKINGER, A.B., '94.  
1911, *Principal*, Langley Junior-Senior High School; Pittsburgh, Pennsylvania.



xxviii *National Association of Secondary-School Principals*

- 1922 ELLEN FILEAN, B.A., '12.  
1918, *Principal*, Humboldt High School; Humboldt, Iowa.
- 1918 RALPH E. FILES, A.B., '95.  
1912, *Principal*, East Orange High School; East Orange, New Jersey.
- 1923 EDWIN L. FINDLEY, A.B., '91; A.M., '96.  
1919, *Principal*, South High School; Cleveland, Ohio.
- 1918 THOMAS H. FINLEY, B.S. in Ed., '15.  
1916, *Principal*, Sullivan Township High School; Sullivan, Illinois.
- 1922 LEIGH V. FINLEY, B.S., '18.  
1921, *Principal*, Catlin Township High School; Catlin, Illinois.
- 1923 R. S. FINLEY.  
Fort Kent, Maine.
- 1924 R. S. FIREBAUGH.  
Oakwood, Illinois.
- 1919 C. A. FISHER, A.B., '10; A.M., '19.  
*Principal*, Central High School; Kalamazoo, Michigan.
- 1924 EDITH M. FISCHER.  
Des Moines, Iowa.
- 1924 L. J. FITZSIMMONS.  
Eureka, Kansas.
- 1918 M. L. FLANINGAM, B.S., '04; A.M., '14.  
1908, *Principal*, Urbana High School; Urbana, Illinois.
- 1923 J. A. FLEMING.  
Bonner Springs, Kansas.
- 1923 HARRIETT FLETCHER, B.S., '19.  
1918, *Principal*, West Junior High School; Warren, Ohio.
- 1917 IRA A. FLINNNER, Ph.B., '06; A.M., '20; A.B., '11.  
1911, *Headmaster*, Huntington School; Boston, Massachusetts.
- 1919 LEWIS L. FORSYTHE, A.B., '04.  
1917, *Principal*, Ann Arbor High School; Ann Arbor, Michigan.
- 1919 L. M. FORT, B.A., '13.  
1918, *Principal*, High School; Mitchell, South Dakota.
- 1921 G. HERBERT FOSS.  
Fort Fairfield, Maine.
- 1924 Eli C. FOSTER.  
Bartlesville, Oklahoma.
- 1923 HERBERT H. FOSTER, Ph.D., '07.  
1923, *Head of Department of Education*, Beloit College; Beloit, Wisconsin.
- 1921 H. A. FOSTER.  
Belfast, Maine.
- 1923 H. D. FOSTER.  
Orono, Maine.
- 1922 BURTON P. FOWLER, A.B., '07.  
1918, *Principal*, Central High School; Cleveland, Ohio.
- 1923 ROY U. FOWLER.  
Dixfield, Maine.
- 1923 WADE C. FOWLER, B.S., '21.  
1923, *Superintendent of Schools*, Hiawatha City Schools; Hiawatha, Kansas.



- 1922 E. J. FOX.  
Neinan Intermediate School ; Detroit, Michigan.
- 1922 GUY FOX, A.B., '15 ; A.M., '19.  
1923, *Principal*, Buena Vista and Longfellow Schools ; Colorado Springs, Colorado.
- 1924 HUGH FRANCIS.  
Traverse City, Michigan.
- 1924 J. H. FRANCIS.  
Piper City, Illinois.
- 1923 ELLEN K. FRANKISH.  
Central High School ; Omaha, Nebraska.
- 1924 EMILY FRANK.  
Hecla, South Dakota.
- 1923 W. J. FRANKS.  
Ponca City, Oklahoma.
- 1923 W. R. FRAZER, B.S., '18.  
1920, *Principal*, McPherson Sr. High School ; McPherson, Kansas.
- 1924 MRS. JESSIE W. FREEMAN.  
Sangerville, Maine.
- 1923 GEORGE F. FREIFELD, B.S., '14 ; M.A., '16.  
1920, *Principal*, Roselle High School ; Roselle, New Jersey.
- 1923 P. P. FRENCH.  
St. Charles, Michigan.
- 1922 E. B. FRESHWATER.  
Macomb, Illinois.
- 1921 ELBERT K. FRETWELL, Ph.D.  
1917, *Professor*, Teachers College, Columbia University ; New York City.
- 1924 RALPH A. FRITZ, A.B., '17 ; A.M., '20.  
1922, *Superintendent of Schools*, Fountain Public School ; Fountain, Colorado.
- 1917 V. K. FROULA, A.B., '98.  
Roosevelt High School ; Seattle, Washington.
- 1924 CARLETON S. FULLER.  
South Paris, Maine.
- 1924 WILBUR N. FULLER.  
St. Louis, Montana.
- 1916 L. A. FULWIDER, A.B., '95 ; A.M., '05.  
1904, *Principal*, High School ; Freeport, Illinois.
- 1923 E. A. FUNK, A.B., '10.  
1917, *Principal*, Arkansas City Junior High School ; Arkansas City, Kansas.
- 1924 MARY FUNICAN.  
Monticello, Indiana.
- 1918 H. H. GADSBY, A.B., '86 ; Ph.D., '92.  
1895, *Principal*, Drury High School ; North Adams, Massachusetts.
- 1923 M. P. GAFFREY.  
The Roger Ascham School ; Hartsdale, New York.
- 1922 M. C. GALLAGHER, B.A., 18.  
1921, *Principal*, Detroit High School ; Detroit, Minnesota.

xxx *National Association of Secondary-School Principals*

- 1924 THOMAS W. GALLOWAY, A.B., '87; A.M., '90; Ph.D., '93.  
American Social Hygiene Association; 370 Seventh Avenue,  
New York, New York.
- 1923 CARL A. GARDNER.  
North Side High School; Fort Worth, Texas.
- 1924 R. H. GARDNER.  
Madison, South Dakota.
- 1922 HOMER L. GARRETT.  
Louisiana State University; Baton Rouge, Louisiana.
- 1924 U. F. GARRETT.  
Ethan, South Dakota.
- 1923 RANSOME J. GARRETT, B.S., '20.  
1922, *Principal*, Richmond High School, Richmond, Maine.
- 1924 R. E. GARRETT.  
Belvidere, Illinois.
- 1922 MARY GARRISON.  
Mendon, Michigan.
- 1924 AVERY E. GASKINS.  
Renick, West Virginia.
- 1923 WILLIAM HERMAN GEIGER, Ph.B., '10; A.M., '12.  
1917, *Superintendent of Schools*; Lisbon, Ohio.
- 1924 Q. D. GASQUE.  
Kingstree, South Carolina.
- 1921 C. W. GETTMANN, A.B., A.M., B.D.  
1921, *Principal*, High School, Oklahoma City, Oklahoma.
- 1924 F. N. GAULT.  
Gilbert, Arizona.
- 1923 LEE E. GEYER.  
Corning, Kansas.
- 1924 CHARLES H. GEISE.  
Watertown, South Dakota.
- 1923 G. A. GILBERT.  
Lamont, Michigan.
- 1924 A. J. GIBSON.  
Fairmont, West Virginia.
- 1922 GEORGE H. GILBERT, JR., B.A., '14.  
1917, *Principal*, High School, Wellesley Hills, Massachusetts.
- 1924 ERWIN L. GIENKE.  
Plumville, Pennsylvania.
- 1923 A. J. GILSON.  
Elkins, West Virginia.
- 1924 C. N. GIFFORD.  
Mt. Horeb, Wisconsin.
- 1923 F. H. GILLILAND, B.A., '17.  
1922, *Principal*, High School; Le Mars, Iowa.
- 1921 J. F. GILLILAND, A.B.  
1910, *Principal*, Senior High School; Arkansas City, Kansas.
- 1924 B. I. GIMMESTAD.  
Lester Prairie, Minnesota.
- 1924 H. R. GIRHARD.  
Martinsville, Illinois.
- 1924 AMOS W. GLAD.  
Paola, Kansas.

- 1921 W. L. GLASCOCK, A.B., '05; A.M., '06.  
1912, *Principal*, San Mateo Union High School; San Mateo, California.
- 1924 G. A. GLASSING.  
Menno, South Dakota.
- 1916 RONALD P. GLEASON, B.Sc., '87.  
1905, *Principal*, Technical High School; Scranton, Pennsylvania.
- 1923 H. H. GNUSE.  
South Side High School; Memphis, Tennessee.
- 1923 HOWARD L. GOAS.  
Orange, New Jersey.
- 1916 W. L. GOBLE, S.B., '01.  
1905, *Principal*, Elgin High School; Elgin, Illinois.
- 1919 W. A. GOODIER.  
Bloomington, Illinois.
- 1921 NELLIE GOODMAN, B.Di., '10; B.A., '12.  
Estherville, Iowa.
- 1924 F. C. GOODWIN.  
Milford, Illinois.
- 1924 CLARENCE N. GOULD.  
Buckfield, Maine.
- 1922 MAUDE I. GORHAM, Ph.B., '19.  
1920, *Principal*, Holcomb Consolidated School; Holcomb, Kansas.
- 1918 THOMAS WARRINGTON GOSLING, A.B., '94; A.M., '04; Ph.D., '11.  
1921, *Superintendent*; 22 West Dayton Street, Madison, Wisconsin.
- 1924 R. E. GOWONS.  
Ottawa, Kansas.
- 1918 V. BLANCHE GRAHAM, B.S., '94.  
1910, *Principal*, High School; Naperville, Illinois.
- 1923 GORDON GRANT, B.L., '94.  
1912, *Principal*, Fort Collins Colorado High School; Fort Collins, Colorado.
- 1923 WILLARD E. GRAVES, A.B., '07.  
1919, *Superintendent County High School System*, Cheyenne County High School; Cheyenne Wells, Colorado.
- 1924 LEE T. GRAY.  
Portsmouth, New Hampshire.
- 1923 W. L. GRAY.  
Belding, Michigan.
- 1924 MAGGIE GRAY.  
*Principal*, High School; Grundy Center, Iowa.
- 1924 B. RAYMOND GREENE, Ped.B., '09; A.B., '12; A.M., '13.  
1920, *Principal*, Fort Morgan Senior High School; Fort Morgan, Colorado.
- 1924 W. EARLE GREENE.  
Lucas, Kansas.
- 1922 CARL GREEN.  
Flat Rock, Illinois.

- 1921 GEORGE M. GREEN.  
*Principal*, Inglewood Union High School; Inglewood, California.
- 1923 ROY V. GREEN.  
Lyndon, Kansas.
- 1923 N. F. GREENHILL.  
County High School; Cullman, Alabama.
- 1921 ELLEN M. GREGG.  
Wheaton, Illinois.
- 1924 A. F. GREGORY.  
Webster Springs, West Virginia.
- 1922 C. E. GRIFFITH.  
Wyoming, Illinois.
- 1924 KEAN GRIFFITH.  
Olathe, Colorado.
- 1922 M. R. GRIGSBY.  
Oregon, Illinois.
- 1924 R. I. GRIGSBY, A.B., '18.  
1923, *Principal*, Amos Hiatt Junior High School; Des Moines, Iowa.
- 1924 J. O. GRIMES.  
Ypsilanti, Michigan.
- 1923 E. DUNCAN GRIZZELL, A.B., '15; A.M., '19; Ph.D., '22.  
1922, *Assistant Professor Secondary Education*, University of Pennsylvania; Philadelphia, Pennsylvania.
- 1920 FRANK L. GROVE, A.B., '09; A.M., '17.  
1918, *Principal*, Mobile High School; Mobile, Alabama.
- 1922 P. F. GROVE, A.B., '13; A.M., '23.  
1922, *Superintendent-Principal*, Mt. Carroll Com. High School; Mt. Carroll, Illinois.
- 1922 C. COOPER GROVES.  
Chester, Illinois.
- 1923 A. D. GROV.  
Dennysville, Maine.
- 1924 R. L. GWINN.  
Ridge Farm, Illinois.
- 1924 E. D. GUNN.  
Midian, Kansas.
- 1924 WM J. GUTHRIE.  
*Principal*, High School; Des Moines, Iowa.
- 1924 C. F. GYSSON.  
Williamsville, Illinois.
- 1922 W. W. HAGGARD, A.B., 17.  
1921, *Principal*, Arthur Hill High School; Saginaw, W. S., Michigan.
- 1924 D. H. HOLDAMAN.  
Farmington, Missouri.
- 1923 WAYNE B. HALES.  
Snow Junior College; Ephraim, Utah.
- 1916 AVON S. HALL, A.B., '84.  
1913, *Principal*, Medill High School; Chicago, Illinois.

- 1924 M. H. HALLMAN.  
Aberdeen, South Dakota.
- 1924 MYRON C. HAMER.  
Farmington, Maine.
- 1922 G. R. HAMILTON.  
Hopedale, Illinois.
- 1922 JESSIE M. HAMILTON.  
Morey Junior High School; Denver, Colorado.
- 1924 R. R. HAMILTON.  
Hurst, Illinois.
- 1924 CHAS. E. HAMLEN.  
Oxford, Maine.
- 1921 HERBERT F. HANCOX, A.B., '10; A.M., '11.  
1919, *Principal*, Central Evening Preparatory School; 19 South  
LaSalle Street, Chicago, Illinois.
- 1921 JOHN LOUIS HANEY, B.S., '98; A.M., '00; Ph.D., '01.  
1920, *President*, Central High School; Philadelphia, Pennsylv-  
vania.
- 1920 BEN M. HANNA.  
Rockford, Illinois.
- 1919 C. C. HANNA.  
1920, *Principal*, Bridgeport Township High School; Bridgeport,  
Illinois.
- 1919 L. W. HANNA, Ph.B., '09.  
1917, *Principal*, Township High School, Centralia, Illinois.
- 1917 ROY F. HANNUM, A.B., '07.  
1923, *Principal*, High School; Ottumwa, Iowa.
- 1921 F. E. HANSCOM, M.A.  
1897, *Principal*, Gould's Academy; Bethel, Maine.
- 1924 A. I. HARDY.  
Mendota, Illinois.
- 1923 S. J. HARGIS.  
LaVeta, Colorado.
- 1917 R. T. HARGREAVES, A.B., '02.  
1918, *Principal*, Central High School; Minneapolis, Minnesota.
- 1924 P. J. HARKNESS.  
Armour, South Dakota.
- 1924 MAX C. HARMON.  
Buxton, Maine.
- 1923 E. L. HARMS.  
Augusta, Kansas.
- 1921 W. E. HARNISH.  
Bellflower, Illinois.
- 1922 PAUL W. HARNLY.  
Chanute, Kansas.
- 1924 W. P. HARRELL.  
Vincennes, Indiana.
- 1924 LESTER B. HARRIMAN.  
Cornish, Maine.
- 1924 R. W. HARRIMAN.  
West Hartford, Connecticut.

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- 1922 W. G. HARRIS.  
Elgin, Illinois.
- 1924 HENRY H. HARRIS.  
Lowell, Massachusetts.
- 1924 MELVIN C. HART.  
Birmingham, Michigan.
- 1924 DREW T. HARTHORN.  
Waterville, Maine.
- 1923 R. HARTMAN.  
Atlantic Highlands, New Jersey.
- 1924 GEORGE A. HARTWICK.  
Monongah, West Virginia.
- 1924 J. M. HARVEY.  
Marshall, Illinois.
- 1921 CHARLES B. HASKELL, A.B.  
1919, *Principal*, High School; South Portland, Maine.
- 1921 CHARLES O. HASKELL.  
Harvard, Illinois.
- 1924 W. A. HATCH.  
Nucla, Colorado.
- 1920 L. W. HAVILAND.  
Onarga, Illinois.
- 1924 (MRS.) M. W. HAVILAND.  
Jefferson, South Dakota.
- 1919 WALTER W. HAVILAND, A.B., '93.  
1912, *Principal*, Friends' Select School; Philadelphia, Pennsylvania.
- 1922 WILLIAM HAWKES, A.B., '12.  
1919, *Principal*, Township High School; Toulon, Illinois.
- 1924 MASON A. HAWKINS.  
Baltimore, Maryland.
- 1923 H. H. HAWLEY, A.B., '04.  
1918, *Principal*, Ludington High School; Ludington, Michigan.
- 1923 M. J. HAYES.  
Hutchins School; Detroit, Michigan.
- 1923 R. M. HAYES.  
Unity, Maine.
- 1922 WILLIAM F. HEAD, B.S., '09.  
1917, *Principal*, High School, Albion, Michigan.
- 1923 WILLIAM HEATON, Ph.B., '04.  
1922, *Principal*, Centennial High School; Pueblo, Colorado.
- 1924 V. M. HEFFELFINGER.  
Mahaffey High School; Mahaffey, Pennsylvania.
- 1921 A. G. HEITMAN, A.B., '08.  
1920, *Principal*, High School; Sioux City, Iowa.
- 1924 IDA J. HELFRICH.  
Carthage, Illinois.
- 1924 D. B. HELLER.  
Vermilion, South Dakota.
- 1923 L. E. HENDERSON.  
St. John, Kansas.

- 1924 E. H. HENRICKS.  
LaPlace, Illinois.
- 1924 H. D. HENDRICKS.  
Boonville, California.
- 1924 JOHN C. HENDRICKSON.  
Platte, South Dakota.
- 1922 H. E. HENDRIX.  
Mesa, Arizona.
- 1923 S. HENDRIX.  
Iola, Kansas.
- 1923 BERNICE HENRY.  
Hillman, Michigan.
- 1922 F. A. HERRINGTON.  
Depue, Illinois.
- 1923 J. R. HERVEY, A.B., '15.  
1920, *Principal*, South Haven High School; South Haven,  
Michigan.
- 1924 C. L. HIGDON.  
Hebron, Illinois.
- 1924 S. E. Higgins.  
Colby, Kansas.
- 1921 LUELLA HIGHTSHOE, A.B., '07; A.M., '10.  
1919, *Principal*, High School; Shenandoah, Iowa.
- 1923 ROSCOE C. HILL.  
East Denver High School; Denver, Colorado.
- 1924 HAROLD M. HILL.  
Alba, Michigan.
- 1924 J. W. HILL.  
Orlindo, Tennessee.
- 1917 THOMAS CRAWFORD HILL, A.B., '81.  
1904, *Principal*, Christian Fenger High School; Chicago, Illi-  
nois.
- 1923 WILLIAM C. HILL, A.B., '94; A.M., '23.  
1910, *Principal*, Central High School; Springfield, Massachu-  
setts.
- 1924 H. S. HILLEBOE.  
Sioux Falls, South Dakota.
- 1920 C. M. HIMEL.  
*Principal*, Des Plaines Township High School; Des Plaines,  
Illinois.
- 1923 L. F. HIRE.  
1918, *Principal*, Roosevelt High School; Wyandotte, Michigan.
- 1917 A. M. HITCH, A.B., '97; B.S., '07.  
1907, *Principal*, Kemper Military School; Boonville, Missouri.
- 1923 O. F. HITE, B.A., '13.  
1923, *Superintendent of Schools*; Dodge City, Kansas.
- 1923 FREDERICK C. HODGDON, A.B., '94.  
Ginn and Company; 70 Fifth Avenue, New York, New York.
- 1924 E. B. HODGES.  
Mountain View, California.
- 1923 JOHN A. HODGE, A.B., '09; A.M., '10.  
1916, Sumner High School; Kansas City, Kansas.



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- 1924 B. A. HOFFMAN, A.B., '16.  
1923, *Principal*, Elburn Community High School; Elburn,  
Illinois.
- 1922 F. H. HOFF.  
Westfield, Illinois.
- 1924 GEORGE W. HODGKINS.  
1821 Kalorama Road, Washington, D. C.
- 1924 C. ALLEN HOGLE, B.S., '14.  
*Principal*, Senior and Junior High Schools; Newton, Iowa.
- 1922 P. M. HOKE.  
Heyworth, Illinois.
- 1923 W. R. HOLBERT, Ph.B., '14.  
1920, *Principal*, Somerville High School; Somerville, New  
Jersey.
- 1923 C. R. HOLBROOK.  
Nogales, Arizona.
- 1920 H. D. HOLDEN.  
Manlius, Illinois.
- 1923 RAY B. HOLLINGSHEAD, A.B., '21.  
1921, *Principal*, Cripple Creek High School; Cripple Creek,  
Colorado.
- 1924 O. K. HOLLISTER.  
Westbrook Seminary; Portland, Maine.
- 1924 FLO E. HOLMAN.  
Mulberry, Kansas.
- 1924 WALLACE F. HOLMAN.  
Madison, Maine.
- 1924 J. R. HOLMES.  
Sapulpa, Oklahoma.
- 1924 L. C. HOLSTON.  
Yarmouth, Maine.
- 1923 L. J. HONISS.  
Dumont, New Jersey.
- 1922 F. C. HOOD.  
Vandalia, Illinois.
- 1917 WALTER D. HOOD, B.A., '94.  
1908, *Principal*, The Gilbert School; Winsted, Connecticut.
- 1921 W. S. HOOVER, B.S., '15.  
1921, *Principal*, Clinton Community High School; Clinton,  
Illinois.
- 1922 FRANCES E. HOPKINS.  
*Principal*, High School; Lyons, Michigan.
- 1924 MEYERS B. HORNER.  
Corapolis, Pennsylvania.
- 1923 WALTER HORST, A.B., '16.  
1917, *Principal*, Three Rivers High School; Three Rivers,  
Michigan.
- 1919 B. Q. HOSKINSON, A.B., '16; A.M., '17.  
Augusta, Illinois.
- 1919 OTTIS HOSKINSON, A.B., '00; A.M., '16.  
Paxton, Illinois.
- 1923 IVAN P. HOSTETLER, B.S., '19.  
1922, *Principal*, Miami High School; Miami, Arizona.



- 1920 O. C. HOSTETTLER, B.S., '22.  
1922, *Principal*, Moore Township High School; Farmer City,  
Illinois.
- 1919 H. W. HOSTETTLER.  
Olney, Illinois.
- 1924 T. C. HOSTETTLER.  
Kempton, Illinois.
- 1922 HENRY G. HOTZ, Ph.B., '13; M.A., '15; Ph.D., '17.  
1919, *Professor of Secondary Education*, University of Arkan-  
sas; Fayetteville, Arkansas.
- 1924 J. L. HOUSE.  
El Centro, California.
- 1919 GEORGE E. HOWARD.  
1918, *Superintendent of Schools*; Farina, Illinois.
- 1924 F. J. HOWE, M.Ped., '02.  
1923, *Principal*, High School; Muscatine, Iowa.
- 1923 JULIAN O. HOWE.  
Brush, Colorado.
- 1923 GEORGE HARRISON HOWER, B.S., '12; B.Ped., '06.  
1922, *Principal*, Ellis High School; Ellis, Kansas.
- 1923 C. F. HOWLAND, A.B., '90.  
1923, *Principal*, Franklin High School; Franklin, Maine.
- 1919 A. E. HUBBARD.  
Wellington, Illinois.
- 1924 REV. LEIGH HUBBELL.  
Brookland, D. C.
- 1922 CHARLES S. HUFF, A.B.  
1910, *Principal*, High School; Asbury Park, New Jersey.
- 1918 H. D. HUGHES, A.B., '08; A.M., '17.  
Brewer Teachers' Agency; Chicago, Illinois.
- 1923 R. O. HUGHES, A.B., '00.  
1913, *Peabody High School*; Pittsburgh, Pennsylvania.
- 1922 JAY EARLE HULET.  
Keyesport, Illinois.
- 1924 L. B. HULL, A.M.  
1924, *Principal*, Latimer Junior High School; Pittsburgh, Penn-  
sylvania.
- 1924 JOHN G. HULTON.  
Latrobe, Pennsylvania.
- 1924 MERLE F. HUNT.  
York, Maine.
- 1923 R. C. HUNT, B.S., '18.  
1918, *Superintendent of Schools*; Howard, Kansas.
- 1923 R. L. HUNT.  
Hebron Academy; Hebron, Maine.
- 1923 W. F. HUNTER, B.A., '17.  
1921, *Superintendent of Schools*; Platteville, Colorado.
- 1924 MARSHALL W. HURLIN.  
Jonesboro, Maine.
- 1924 J. H. HUTCHINSON.  
Stanford, Illinois.
- 1924 LOWELL E. HUSTON.  
Roxbury, Kansas.

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- 1923 HARRY HUSTON, A.B., '05.  
1915, *Principal*, High School; Blackwell, Oklahoma.
- 1923 J. L. HUTCHINSON, B.S., '15.  
1911, *Principal*, Senior High School; Pittsburg, Kansas.
- 1920 CLEMENT C. HYDE, A.B., '92; L.H.D., '12.  
1911, *Principal*, Hartford Public High School; Hartford, Connecticut.
- 1922 R. W. HYNDMAN.  
Canton, Illinois.
- 1922 R. W. HYNDMAN, A.B., '15; A.M., '12.  
1920, *Principal*, High School; Hillsdale, Michigan.
- 1924 ERNEST ILER.  
Downers Grove, Illinois.
- 1923 L. R. ISAACS.  
Charles City, Iowa.
- 1924 W. L. INGOLD.  
Walkertown, North Carolina.
- 1924 E. J. JACKSON.  
Mt. Olive, Illinois.
- 1924 C. N. JACKSON.  
Bluefield, West Virginia.
- 1923 LAMBERT L. JACKSON, M.Pd., '00; D.Pd., '06; Ph.D., '06.  
1920, *Assistant Commissioner*; Trenton, New Jersey.
- 1921 RALPH W. JACKSON, B.S., '20.  
1920, *Principal*, Benton Township High School; Benton, Illinois.
- 1923 ESTHER JACOBS.  
Burlington, Iowa.
- 1924 SISTER MARY JAMES.  
Jefferson, South Dakota.
- 1922 DANIEL F. JANTZEN, A.B., '21.  
*Principal*, Phoenix Union High School; Phoenix, Arizona.
- 1922 WILLSON JARMAN.  
Nauvoo, Illinois.
- 1923 ARTHUR W. JELLISON.  
1922, *Principal*, Milo High School; Milo, Maine.
- 1923 FERN JENKINS.  
Cassopolis, Michigan.
- 1924 H. JENKINS.  
Portland, Oregon.
- 1923 LOUISE K. JESSEN.  
Milford, Iowa.
- 1922 JOHN H. JESSUP, A.B.  
1920, *Principal*, High School; Harlan, Iowa.
- 1923 EARL JEWETT.  
Telluride, Colorado.
- 1924 FRANK H. JEWETT.  
Old Orchard, Maine.
- 1924 CHARLES A. JOHNSON, B.A., '07.  
1917, *Superintendent of Schools*, Walsenburg, Colorado.
- 1921 FRANKLIN W. JOHNSON, A.B., '91; A.M., '94; L.H.D., '16.  
1919, Teachers' College; 120th Street and Broadway, New York, New York.

- 1923 C. T. JOHNSON, B.S., '21.  
1921, *Principal*, Oswego High School, Oswego, Kansas.
- 1922 JOHN H. JOHNSON.  
Mapleton, Illinois.
- 1923 JOHN O. JOHNSON, A.B., '19.  
1923, *Principal*, Stillwater High School; Stillwater, Minnesota.
- 1924 P. E. JOHNSON.  
Southwest Harbor, Maine.
- 1923 R. W. JOHNSON.  
Royal Centre, Indiana.
- 1922 C. E. JOINER.  
LeRoy, Illinois.
- 1924 ARTHUR OWEN JONES, B.S., '99; M.A., '07.  
1922, *Principal*, Woodward High School; Cincinnati, Ohio.
- 1918 ARTHUR J. JONES, A.B., '93; Ph.D., '07.  
1915, *Professor of Secondary Education*, University of Pennsylvania; Philadelphia, Pennsylvania.
- 1923 G. F. JONES.  
Denton, Kansas.
- 1922 GALEN JONES, A.B., '18; A.M., '21.  
Sapulpa, Oklahoma.
- 1924 H. S. JONES.  
Plymouth, Pennsylvania.
- 1922 J. W. JONES.  
1919, *Principal*, Melvin Community High School; Melvin, Illinois.
- 1924 WALTER P. JONES.  
Macon, Georgia.
- 1924 W. R. JONES.  
Pagosa Springs, Colorado.
- 1922 WILLIAM O. JONES.  
1916, *Principal*, DeLand Township High School; DeLand, Illinois.
- 1924 F. W. JUNGCK.  
Cleveland, North Dakota.
- 1924 BROTHER JUSTUS.  
St. Mel High School; Chicago, Illinois.
- 1924 W. L. KAISER.  
Jacksonville, Illinois.
- 1924 J. F. KARBER.  
Ridgway, Illinois.
- 1923 J. STEVENS KADESCH, A.B., '10.  
1921, *Headmaster*, Medford High School; Medford, Massachusetts.
- 1924 W. LESLIE KAISER, A.B., '19.  
1922, *Principal*, Jacksonville High School; Jacksonville, Illinois.
- 1923 G. B. KAPPELMANN.  
Powhattan, Kansas.
- 1923 O. T. KAPPELMANN.  
White City, Kansas.
- 1922 A. E. KARNES.  
Twin Falls, Idaho.

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- 1922 D. L. KATTERJOHN, B.S., '96; A.B., '18; A.M., '19.  
1920, *Principal*, Labette County High School; Altamont,  
Kansas.
- 1922 CARL R. KEELER, A.B., '17.  
1920, *Superintendent of Schools*; Greenleaf, Kansas.
- 1923 LEWIS KEELER.  
Osborne, Kansas.
- 1923 E. E. KEENA.  
Glenwood Springs, Colorado.
- 1924 J. C. KEEVER, A.B., '18.  
1923, *Principal*, High School; Spirit Lake, Iowa.
- 1922 MARGUERITE KEHR.  
Lake Forest College; Lake Forest, Illinois.
- 1924 E. R. KELLER.  
Greenleaf, Kansas.
- 1918 PAUL G. W. KELLER, B.S., '01.  
1920, *Principal*, Waukegan Township Secondary Schools;  
Waukegan, Illinois.
- 1923 GLENN K. KELLY, A.B., '16.  
1923, *Principal*, Houghton High School; Houghton, Michigan.
- 1922 M. C. KELLEY.  
Vermilion, Illinois.
- 1924 R. KELLY.  
Peotone, Illinois.
- 1924 WILLIAM KEMPTON.  
Cape Elizabeth, Maine.
- 1924 EDITH KENNON.  
Anamosa, Iowa.
- 1922 HARRY V. KEPNER, A.B., '90; A.M., '97; Sc.D., '17.  
1919, *Principal*, West High School; Denver, Colorado.
- 1924 G. B. KEPPELMAN.  
Miltonvale, Kansas.
- 1924 THOMAS W. KERFOOT, B.S., '18.  
1920, *Principal*, High School; Ft. Madison, Iowa.
- 1924 ARMAND KERLAOUZO.  
Power, Montana.
- 1924 R. N. KETCHAM.  
Oak Park High School; Oak Park, Illinois.
- 1919 GILBERT A. KETCHAM, A.B., '99.  
1912, *Principal*, Missoula County High School; 813 Hilda  
Street, Missoula, Montana.
- 1921 ETHEL J. KEYS.  
Mattoon, Illinois.
- 1923 M. R. KEYES.  
Mattanawcook Academy; Lincoln, Maine.
- 1924 H. E. KILBOURNE.  
Abilene, Kansas.
- 1921 P. H. KIMBALL, A.B., '11.  
1920, *Principal*, Brunswick High School; Brunswick, Maine.
- 1922 R. R. KIMMELE.  
Washington, Illinois.
- 1924 J. P. KING.  
King City, Kansas.

- 1919 C. H. KINGMAN, A.B., '05.  
1913, *Principal*, Township High School; Ottawa, Illinois.
- 1923 CLARENCE D. KINGSLEY.  
Boston, Massachusetts.
- 1922 CHARLES R. KINISON.  
Rosemond, Illinois.
- 1921 THOMAS J. KIRBY, A.B., '06; M.A., '10; Ph.D., '13.  
1920, *Professor of Secondary Education*, University of Iowa;  
Iowa City, Iowa.
- 1924 EDNA KIRK, A.B., '11.  
1923, *Principal*, Hutsonville Township High School; Hutson-  
ville, Illinois.
- 1919 H. H. KIRKPATRICK.  
*Principal*, High School; Tuscola, Illinois.
- 1920 GERALD W. KIRN, Ph.B., '09; M.A., '13.  
1919, *Principal*, High School; Council Bluffs, Iowa.
- 1923 G. W. KLIEHEGE, A.M., '11; A.B., '02.  
*Superintendent of Schools*; Hoisington, Kansas.
- 1923 W. A. KLINE, A.B., '16; B.S., '18.  
1917, *Principal*, High School; Westerville, Ohio.
- 1924 H. E. KNARR.  
Des Plaines, Illinois.
- 1924 E. L. KNEELAND.  
Danforth, Maine.
- 1924 WILY W. KNIGHTEN.  
Grass Valley, Oregon.
- 1922 ROBERT R. KNOWLES, B.S.  
1922, *Principal*, Industrial Arts High School; Sterling, Colo-  
rado.
- 1920 CHARLES W. KNUDSON.  
Eureka, Illinois.
- 1924 O. E. KNUTSON.  
Egan, South Dakota.
- 1921 OSCAR F. KOCH, Ph.B.  
1921, *Principal*, High School; Kewanee, Illinois.
- 1924 GROVER C. KOFFMAN.  
Shreveport, Louisiana.
- 1923 C. A. KOLB.  
Reserve, Kansas.
- 1918 G. J. KOONS, A.B., '12.  
1918, *Superintendent of Schools*, *Principal*, Township High  
School; 922 North Chicago Street, Pontiac, Illinois.
- 1920 LEONARD V. KOSS, A.B., '07; A.M., '15; Ph.D., '16.  
1919, *Professor of Secondary Education*, University of Minne-  
sota; Minneapolis, Minnesota.
- 1924 ZOLA KRAMME, A.B., '16.  
1921, *Principal*, Forest City High School; Forest City, Iowa.
- 1923 E. F. KRAXBERGER.  
Peetz, Colorado.
- 1922 MATHILDA KREBS.  
1917, *Principal*, Westmont-Upper Yoder High School; Johns-  
town, Pennsylvania.

- 1919 RICHARD E. KRUG.  
1903, *Principal*, North Division High School; Milwaukee, Wisconsin.
- 1923 LEWIS D. KRUGER, B.S., '10.  
1921, *Principal*, Rosedale High School; Kansas City, Kansas.
- 1919 W. W. KRUMSIEK, A.B., '13.  
Edwardsville, Illinois.
- 1924 ELROY LACASCE.  
Fryeburg, Maine.
- 1924 MILTON B. LAMBERT.  
Houlton, Maine.
- 1922 A. H. LANCASTER.  
Dixon, Illinois.
- 1924 A. J. LANG.  
Huron, South Dakota.
- 1917 D. LANGE, A.B., '09.  
1916, *Principal*, Mechanic Arts High School; Central and Roberts Streets, St. Paul, Minnesota.
- 1923 (MRS.) ZENAIDE LARKINS.  
1921, *Principal*, Northville High School; Northville, Michigan.
- 1921 C. E. LARSON.  
Stronghurst, Illinois.
- 1922 JOHN A. LARSON, A.B., '12; A.M., '23.  
1917, *Principal*, Senior High School; Little Rock, Arkansas.
- 1924 H. PAUL LARRABEE.  
Wells, Maine.
- 1918 ARNOLD LAU, LL.B., '06; Ph.B., '18.  
Y. M. C. A.; 19 South LaSalle St., Chicago, Illinois.
- 1924 W. W. LAUTERBACH, B.S., '21.  
1922, *Principal*, Zeigler Community High School; Zeigler, Illinois.
- 1924 CHESTER E. LAWSON.  
Denton, Kansas.
- 1924 F. HARRIS LEAVITT.  
Eliot, Maine.
- 1924 C. M. LAYTON.  
Cuyahoga Falls, Ohio.
- 1922 CHARLES E. LE FURGE, A.B., '16.  
1918, *Principal*, Lansing Senior High School; Lansing, Michigan.
- 1920 H. W. LEACH, B.S., '11.  
1917, *Principal*, Marietta High School; Marietta, Ohio.
- 1923 CARL E. LEGROW.  
Brooks, Michigan.
- 1922 H. M. LEINBAUGH, B.S., '13.  
Mendon, Illinois.
- 1922 C. E. LEMME.  
Madison, Illinois.
- 1919 J. E. LEMON, A.B., '83.  
1894, *Superintendent of Schools*; Blue Island, Illinois.
- 1924 M. L. LENNON, M.A.  
Harpers Ferry, West Virginia.



- 1922 RALPH F. LESEMAN.  
Nashville, Illinois.
- 1924 ORLANDO A. LESTER.  
Springfield, Maine.
- 1922 MARTHA M. LETTS, A.B., '83.  
1903, *Principal*, High School; Sedalia, Missouri.
- 1923 JAMES LEWIS.  
Westbrook, Maine.
- 1923 FOSTER M. LEWIS, A.B., '98.  
1921, *Assistant Principal*, Central High School; Cleveland,  
Ohio.
- 1924 JONES LEYMAN.  
Elkpoint, South Dakota.
- 1924 DWIGHT L. LIBBEY.  
West Paris, Maine.
- 1923 E. S. LIDE, A.B., '14; LL.B., '16.  
1920, *Principal*, Lawton High School; Lawton, Oklahoma.
- 1921 EARL K. LIGHTCAP.  
Stockton, Illinois.
- 1922 M. E. LIGON, A.B., '05; A.M., '21.  
1921, *Principal*, High School, Ashland, Kentucky.
- 1922 E. E. LJJEQUIST.  
Elburn, Illinois.
- 1923 S. J. LINCK.  
Ravenna, Michigan.
- 1924 J. E. LINCH.  
Johnson City, Illinois.
- 1922 F. M. LINDLEY.  
Manito, Illinois.
- 1924 J. W. LINDLEY.  
Cheney, Washington.
- 1920 R. V. LINDSEY, B.E., '19.  
*Principal*, Pekin Community High School; Pekin, Illinois.
- 1922 CORA Z. LIPE, B.S., '11.  
1921, *Principal*, High School, Witt, Illinois.
- 1922 F. W. LIPPER.  
Sterling, Kansas.
- 1922 SHERMAN LITTLER, A.B., '11; A.M., '12.  
1921, *Principal*, Township High School; Henry, Illinois.
- 1921 W. H. LIVERS.  
1921, *Principal*, High School; Galesburg, Illinois.
- 1924 (Mrs.) E. LOCK.  
Columbus, Kansas.
- 1920 A. V. LOCKHART, A.B., '15; A.M., '17.  
Lockport, Illinois.
- 1919 E. H. LOMBER, Ph.B., '03; Ph.M., '06.  
1906, *Principal*, Canandaigua Academy; Canandaigua, New  
York.
- 1924 CHARLES LOMBARD.  
Kennebunk, Maine.
- 1924 REV. W. J. LONERGAN.  
Van Buren, Maine.

- 1922 ALEXANDER LONG.  
Greenville, Illinois.
- 1924 EDITH A. LONGBON.  
*Principal*, Berea High School; Berea, Ohio.
- 1923 NORMAN D. LOTHROP, B.A., '17.  
1922, *Principal*, Bingham High School; Bingham, Maine.
- 1923 HAROLD LOUCHS.  
Lyons, Kansas.
- 1924 PHILIP LOVEJOY, A.B., '16.  
1923, *Principal*, High School; Marshall, Michigan.
- 1919 O. H. LOWARY, A.B., '02.  
1910, *Principal*, High School; Bakersfield, California.
- 1922 A. W. LOWE, A.B., '00.  
1922, *Principal*, Portland High School; Portland, Maine.
- 1923 MILLARD L. LOWERY, A.B., '08; A.M., '09; A.M., '14.  
1922, *Principal*, Senior High School; New Brunswick, New Jersey.
- 1924 G. E. LOWRY.  
Stonington, Illinois.
- 1919 W. M. LOY.  
Gibson City, Illinois.
- 1924 MICHAEL H. LUCEY.
- 1924 F. A. LUNAN, B.A., '17.  
1923, *Principal*, High School, Chariton, Iowa.
- 1924 B. G. LUDWIG.  
Martins Ferry, Ohio.
- 1916 EDMUND D. LYON, A.B., '02; Ped.D., '08.  
1919, *Principal*, East High School; 5505 Arnsby Place, Cincinnati, Ohio.
- 1924 O. S. LUTES.  
Medford, Minnesota.
- 1922 S. H. LYTTLE, A.B., '15.  
1920, *Principal*, High School; Manistee, Michigan.
- 1924 J. I. LYNCH, B.D., '00; A.B., '07.  
1923, *Principal*, Township High School, Johnson City, Illinois.
- 1924 MARY MACDONALD.  
Northfield, Massachusetts.
- 1924 J. W. MACNEIST, Ph.B., '11.  
1920, Century Co.; 2126 Prairie Avenue, Chicago, Illinois
- 1923 FRANCIS J. MACELWANE.  
2535 Collingwood Avenue, Toledo, Ohio.
- 1924 L. O. MACHLAN.  
Gunnison, Colorado.
- 1923 EVAN L. MAHAFFEY, B.A., '07; M.A., '11.  
1920, *Principal*, South High School; Columbus, Ohio.
- 1923 G. G. MANKEY, B.S., '15; M.A., '23.  
1921, *Principal*, Nutley High School; Nutley, New Jersey.
- 1923 JOSEPH F. MANLEY.  
Boys' High School; Paterson, New Jersey.
- 1922 HAROLD E. MANN.  
Hinckley, Illinois.
- 1924 DON T. MANN.  
Dunnellon, Florida.

- 1919 L. B. MANN.  
Earlville, Illinois.
- 1922 MARTIN M. MANSPERGER, B.Sc., in Ed.  
1921, *Principal*, High School; Zanesville, Ohio.
- 1921 J. O. MARBERRY, A.B., '08; A.M., '16.  
1921, *Principal*, Rockford High School; Rockford, Illinois.
- 1924 LINDSAY J. MARCH.  
Dover-Foxcroft, Maine.
- 1921 FRANK H. MARKMAN.  
Jerseyville, Illinois.
- 1923 EDWARD T. MARLATT, Ph.B., '03.  
1918, *Principal*, High School, Hackensack, New Jersey.
- 1924 A. M. MARRS.  
Omaha, Nebraska.
- 1916 GEORGE EDWARD MARSHALL, A.B., '90.  
1907, *Principal*, Davenport High School; Davenport, Iowa.
- 1923 H. C. MARSHALL, A.B., '97.  
1918, *Principal*, Hubbard Junior High School; Columbus, Ohio
- 1923 JOHN H. MARSHALL.  
Marshall, Missouri.
- 1916 J. E. MARSHALL, B.S., '01; M.A., '19.  
1916, *Principal*, Central High School; 1696 Blair St., St. Paul,  
Minnesota.
- 1924 F. O. MARSHALL.  
Vermilion Grove, Illinois.
- 1922 O. T. MARSTON.  
Pleasant Hill, Illinois.
- 1924 MURRAY MARTIN, A.B., '22.  
1923, *Principal*, Eaton Rapids High School; Eaton Rapids,  
Michigan.
- 1923 ISAAC P. MARTIN, A.B., '17.  
1919, *Superintendent of Schools*; Pawnee Rock, Kansas.
- 1923 H. L. MARVIN.  
Midland, Michigan.
- 1916 J. G. MASTERS, Ph.B., '12; A.M., '15.  
1915, *Principal*, Central High School; Twentieth and Dodge  
Streets, Omaha, Nebraska.
- 1924 EDITH L. MASTERS.  
Petersburg, Illinois.
- 1924 EDITH E. MASTUS.  
Petersburg, Illinois.
- 1923 NORMAN L. MATHEWS, B.S., '16.  
1918, *Principal*, Waterville Senior High School; Waterville,  
Maine.
- 1924 NEIL D. MATHEWS.  
Cleveland, Ohio.
- 1922 ARTHUR J. MATTESON, A.B., '14.  
1920, *Principal*, A. D. Johnston High School; Bessemer,  
Michigan.
- 1922 E. W. MATTOON.  
St. Joseph, Illinois.
- 1920 E. O. MAY, B.S., '11.  
1921, *Principal*, Township High School; Robinson, Illinois.

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- 1923 FRED A. MAYBERRY.  
1922, *Principal*, Carnegie High School; Carnegie, Oklahoma.
- 1922 HERMAN MAYHEW.  
Morgan Park Military Academy; Chicago, Illinois.
- 1924 R. J. MAYO.  
Hopkins, Minnesota.
- 1922 ELIZABETH MAYOR.  
Carthage, Illinois.
- 1923 L. F. MEADE, Ph.B., '03.  
1921, *Principal*, Senior High School; Port Huron, Michigan.
- 1923 W. H. MECK.  
Stivers High School; Dayton, Ohio.
- 1921 A. B. MELROSE, A.B., '15.  
*Principal*, High School; Charles City, Iowa.
- 1921 CHARLES E. MELTON, A.B.S., '17.  
1921, *Principal*, Walnut Commercial High School; Walnut, Illinois.
- 1920 MONROE MELTON.  
1920, *Principal*, Hall Township High School; Spring Valley, Illinois.
- 1924 G. H. MERRIAM.  
Hinckley, Maine.
- 1919 A. W. MERRILL, A.B., '90.  
1923, *Assistant Superintendent of Schools*; Des Moines, Iowa.
- 1922 C. C. MERRILL.  
Forrest, Illinois.
- 1923 LOUISE A. MERRILL.  
Byers Junior High School; Denver, Colorado.
- 1924 F. H. MERTON.  
Ouray, Colorado.
- 1923 R. B. MERTZ.  
Trinidad, Colorado.
- 1924 BRUCE W. MERWIN.  
Sharon Springs, Kansas.
- 1922 HAROLD F. MEYER.  
Elburn, Illinois.
- 1923 (MRS.) RACHEL S. MICHAEL.  
1922, *Member*, St. Louis Board of Education; St. Louis, Missouri.
- 1924 F. L. MILAN.  
North Haven, Maine.
- 1924 ALPHA M. MILLER.  
Jackson, Missouri.
- 1916 ARMAND R. MILLER, B.S., '97; A.M., '23.  
1914, *Principal*, McKinley High School; St. Louis, Missouri.
- 1923 BERTHA M. MILLER.  
Butler, Pennsylvania.
- 1924 A. F. MILLER.  
St. Francisville, Illinois.
- 1923 BRYAN R. MILLER, B.S., '22.  
1919, *Superintendent*, Eudora Rural High School; Eudora, Kansas.

- 1922 C. E. MILLER, B.S., '18.  
1922, *Superintendent*, Kansas High School; Kansas, Illinois.
- 1922 D. W. MILLER, B.S., '21.  
1922, *Principal*, Community High School; Geneva, Illinois.
- 1919 E. F. MILLER, Ph.B.; Ph.M.  
1911, *Principal*, Rayen High School; Youngstown, Ohio.
- 1916 EDWIN L. MILLER, A.B., '90; A.M., '91.  
1922, *Director of Languages*, Board of Education; Detroit, Michigan.
- 1924 E. T. MILLER.  
Hannibal, Missouri.
- 1916 FRED J. MILLER, A.B., '05; M.A., '23.  
1913, *Principal*, East High School; Waterloo, Iowa.
- 1918 HENRY P. MILLER.  
1893, *Principal*, Public High School; Atlantic City, New Jersey.
- 1923 MABEL E. MILLER, A.B., '14.  
1921, *Principal*, High School, Littleton, Colorado.
- 1924 PAUL G. MILLER, A.B., '16.  
1922, *Principal*, Community High School; Staunton, Illinois.
- 1923 WARD I. MILLER, A.B., '14; A.M., '15.  
1920, *Superintendent of Schools*; Wiley, Colorado.
- 1922 C. L. MILTON, A.B., '15.  
1920, *Principal*, High School; St. Joseph, Michigan.
- 1924 W. D. MINGEE.  
Danville, Illinois.
- 1920 FRED C. MITCHELL, B.S., '00; M.A., '06.  
1915, *Principal*, Classical High School; Lynn, Massachusetts.
- 1923 S. C. MITCHELL.  
Benton Harbor, Michigan.
- 1923 LEONARD MNIECE.  
Hancock, Michigan.
- 1924 LeROY W. MOAN.  
Cherryfield, Maine.
- 1924 T. O. MOLES, B.S., '13.  
1923, *Principal*, High School; Marshalltown, Iowa.
- 1923 L. C. MONAHAN.  
Millinocket, Maine.
- 1923 J. R. MONROE.  
Islesboro, Maine.
- 1922 BASIL E. MONTGOMERY, B.Sc., '22.  
1922, *Principal*, Pennville High School; Pennville, Indiana.
- 1924 WILLIAM MONYPENY.  
Marion, Kansas.
- 1922 C. W. MOORE.  
Stanford, Illinois.
- 1924 C. H. MOORE.  
Clarksville, Tennessee.
- 1923 HARRY MOORE.  
High Bridge, New Jersey.
- 1923 JOHN W. MOORE.  
R. F. Reynolds High School, Winston-Salem, North Carolina.

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- 1923 D. A. MORGAN, B.S., '22.  
1922, *Principal*, Shawnee-Mission Rural High School; Merriam, Kansas.
- 1924 WILLIAM L. MOORE.  
Cleveland, Ohio.
- 1922 FREDERIC E. MORGAN, A.B.  
1919, *The Principia*; St. Louis, Missouri.
- 1924 J. H. MORGAN.  
Ellensburg, Washington.
- 1923 FRANK H. MORRIS.  
Gridley, Kansas.
- 1924 R. H. MORRIS.  
Flandreau, South Dakota.
- 1923 (MRS.) FANE MORRISON, A.B., '18.  
1918, *Principal*, Junior High School; Midland, Michigan.
- 1924 R. R. MORROW.  
Florence, Colorado.
- 1924 CLIFFORD A. MORTON.  
Town of Union, New Jersey.
- 1924 EMMA CASE MOULTON, A.B., '23.  
*Girls' Adviser*, Roosevelt High School; Des Moines, Iowa.
- 1920 L. E. MOULTON, A.B., '93; Ped.D., '20.  
1909, *Principal*, Edward Little High School; Auburn, Maine.
- 1921 FRED H. MOULTON.  
*Principal*, High School; Clinton, Maine.
- 1924 MARY H. MOYER.  
Reading, Pennsylvania.
- 1922 E. L. MOYER, B.A., '14; M.A., '22.  
1923, *Principal*, Marquette High School; Marquette, Michigan.
- 1924 A. E. MOYERS.  
Sidney, Iowa.
- 1924 FRED J. MULDER, A.B., '17; A.M., '23.  
1923, *Principal*, High School; Allegan, Michigan.
- 1920 EDGAR R. MULLINS, A.B., LL.B.  
1921, *Principal*, Community High School; Tolono, Illinois.
- 1923 F. A. MUNDELL.  
1918, *Principal*, Reno Community High School; Nickerson, Kansas.
- 1924 P. M. MUNRO.  
Selma, Alabama.
- 1920 IRVING MUNSON.  
Momence, Illinois.
- 1924 GEORGE W. MURDOCH, A.M., '07; Ph.B., '01.  
1913, *Principal*, Southwestern High School; Detroit, Michigan.
- 1922 MARGARET MURPHY.  
Carlinville, Illinois.
- 1920 SANFORD MURPHY.  
Chillicothe, Illinois.
- 1922 WILLIAM D. MURPHY.  
Perry, Illinois.
- 1920 JESSIE MUSE.  
1912, *Principal*, Girls' High School; Atlanta, Georgia.



- 1923 RAY F. MYERS, A.B., '14; A.M., '21.  
1922, *Principal*, Thomas Jefferson High School; Council Bluffs,  
Iowa.
- 1924 J. A. MYERS.  
Pedagogical Library; Philadelphia, Pennsylvania.
- 1919 PERRY W. McALLISTER, A.B.  
1918, *Principal*, Township High School; Lovington, Illinois.
- 1922 D. F. McCASH.  
Newton, Illinois.
- 1922 GEORGE R. McCLELLAN.  
Bement, Illinois.
- 1916 E. H. KEMPER McCOMB, A.B., '95; A.M., '98.  
1916, *Principal*, Emmerich Manual Training High School;  
South Meridian and Merrill Streets, Indianapolis, Indiana.
- 1924 ORIE McCONKEY.  
Clarksburg, West Virginia.
- 1922 A. H. McCONNELL.  
Weldon, Illinois.
- 1922 W. W. McCONNELL, B.S., '17.  
1922, *Principal*, Junior-Senior High School; Winfield, Kansas.
- 1917 THOMAS J. McCORMACK, A.B., '84; A.M., '87; LL.B., '90; M.S., '91.  
1903, *Principal*, LaSalle-Peru Township High School; LaSalle,  
Illinois.
- 1916 JOSEPH STEWART McCOWAN, Ph.B., '95; A.M., '00.  
1916, *Principal*, High School; South Bend, Indiana.
- 1924 D. W. McCoy, A.B., '12; A.M., '23.  
1923, *Principal*, High School; Springfield, Illinois.
- 1922 H. W. McCULLOCH.  
Chatsworth, Illinois.
- 1916 M. R. McDANIEL, M.S., '05; A.M., '09.  
1914, *Principal*, Oak Park and River Forest Township High  
School; Oak Park, Illinois.
- 1924 R. E. C. McDougall, B.A., '16.  
1923, *Superintendent of Schools*; Bradley, Illinois.
- 1923 (Mrs.) LOUISE A. McDONALD.  
Oread High School; Lawrence, Kansas.
- 1923 MONTE McFARLANE.  
Ishpeming, Michigan.
- 1924 R. McGRATH.  
Lanark, Illinois.
- 1924 E. C. McGRAW.  
Hampden, Maine.
- 1922 R. L. McKAMY.  
Paw Paw, Illinois.
- 1923 MABEL F. McKEE, B.A., '08.  
1922, *Principal*, High School; Perry, Iowa.
- 1922 E. W. McKEEN.  
Leavitt Institute; Turner, Maine.
- 1924 IDA E. McKINNEY.  
Woodbine, Iowa.
- 1924 J. R. McKILLOP.  
Selma, California.

# 1      *National Association of Secondary-School Principals*

- 1924 ELEANOR McLAUGHLIN.  
Sesser, Illinois.
- 1924 G. P. McLAUGHLIN, A.B., '19.  
1920, *Superintendent of Schools*; Frederick, Colorado.
- 1919 J. C. McMILLAN, A.B., '12.  
1918, *Principal*, High School; Mazon, Illinois.
- 1922 H. C. McMILLIN, A.B., B.S., '13; A.M., '16.  
1918, *Principal*, Senior High School; Coffeyville, Kansas.
- 1923 MAUDE McMINDES, B.S., '16.  
1920, *Principal*, Senior High School; Hays, Kansas.
- 1922 J. V. McNALLY, A.B., '21.  
*Assistant Principal*, Northwestern High School; Detroit, Michigan.
- 1924 W. W. McNALLY.  
Howland, Maine.
- 1924 E. J. McNELY, B.A., '13; B.S., '16; M.E., '20.  
1923, *Principal*, Community High School; Gillespie, Illinois.
- 1919 J. H. McNEEL, A.B., '00.  
1913, *Principal*, High School; 217 St. Lawrence Avenue, Beloit, Wisconsin.
- 1922 (MRS.) W. F. McNULTY, B.S.  
1913, *Principal*, High School; Stockton, Kansas.
- 1922 R. L. McPHERON.  
McAlester, Oklahoma.
- 1922 A. GUY McREYNOLDS.  
Pocahontas, Illinois.
- 1921 O. L. McREYNOLDS, A.B., '15.  
1919, *Principal*, High School; Atkinson, Illinois.
- 1919 W. E. McVEY, B.S., '16; A.M., '19.  
1919, *Principal*, Thornton High School; Harvey, Illinois.
- 1922 WM F. NAIL.  
Anchor, Illinois.
- 1924 ARVID NELSON.  
Atwood, Kansas.
- 1922 J. B. NELSON, A.B., '19.  
1920, *Principal*, High School; Batavia, Illinois.
- 1922 C. H. NETTELS, A.B., '20.  
1921, *Superintendent of Schools*; Smith Center, Kansas.
- 1924 J. K. NEWMANN.  
1921, *Principal*, High School; Rockport, Illinois.
- 1921 C. H. NEWCOMBER, B.S., '16.  
1920, *Principal*, High School; Oskaloosa, Iowa.
- 1922 ROSS J. NICHOL.  
1921, *Principal*, High School; Bluffs, Illinois.
- 1923 G. HARVEY NICHOLS, B.S., '12.  
1920, *Principal*, High School; Bound Brook, New Jersey
- 1924 C. E. NICKLE.  
Fort Dodge, Iowa.
- 1924 PAUL H. NICHOLSON.  
Frederick, Colorado.
- 1919 O. F. NIXON, A.B., '14; A.M., '22.  
1920, *Principal*, East High School; Green Bay, Wisconsin.

- 1924 CHARLES M. NOVAK, A.B., '08; A.M., '15; LL.B., '12.  
1916, *Principal*, North Eastern High School; Detroit, Michigan.
- 1924 WARD F. NORTH.  
Rochester, Minnesota.
- 1921 PAUL C. NORVELL, B.S., '18.  
1920, *Principal*, High School; Cairo, Illinois.
- 1923 WALTER F. NUTT, B.S., '05.  
1911, *Principal*, High School; Clifton, New Jersey.
- 1916 E. P. NUTTING, A.B., '02.  
1905, *Principal*, High School; Moline, Illinois.
- 1922 W. C. NYSTROM, A.B., '14.  
1921, *Principal*, Community High School; Norton, Kansas.
- 1924 E. A. OAKLEY.  
Auburn, Washington.
- 1923 M. D. OESTREICHER, A.B., '21.  
1922, *Superintendent of Schools*; Bucyrus, Kansas.
- 1924 F. A. OGLE.  
Greeley, Colorado.
- 1923 ARTHUR OLLIVIER.  
Pella, Iowa.
- 1917 F. H. OLNEY, A.B., '91.  
1893, *Principal*, Senior High School; Lawrence, Kansas.
- 1922 ELMER L. OLSON.  
Knoxville, Illinois.
- 1923 OLIVER L. OLSON, A.B.  
Lovila, Iowa.
- 1922 A. B. O'NEIL, B.L., '97.  
1901, *Principal*, High School; Oshkosh, Wisconsin.
- 1924 MELTON D. OPENO.  
Kinde, Michigan.
- 1918 F. L. ORTH, A.B., '00.  
1917, *Principal*, High School; New Castle, Pennsylvania.
- 1921 L. G. OSBORN, A.M., '18; A.B., '14; B.S., '12.  
1920, *Principal*, High School; Wood River, Illinois.
- 1922 C. A. OSTIGUY, M.E., '12.  
1922, *Principal*, Downs Community High School; Bloomington, Illinois.
- 1922 CHARLES OTTERMAN, A.B., A.M.  
1919, *Principal*, Woodward High School; Cincinnati, Ohio.
- 1922 GRACE A. OVERHEISER.  
Centerville, Michigan.
- 1923 R. E. OWEN.  
Oak Grove Seminary; Vassalboro, Maine.
- 1924 GARRAH M. PACKER.  
Marshalltown, Iowa.
- 1919 IRVING O. PALMER, '87; A.M., '90.  
1910, *Principal*, Newton Technical High School; Newtonville, Massachusetts.
- 1923 WINNIE M. PALMER.  
Wellman, Iowa.
- 1923 J. C. PARLIN.  
*Principal*, Freedom Academy; Freedom, Maine.

- 1921 JOHN A. PARTRIDGE.  
Caribou, Maine.
- 1923 THOMAS B. PARTWOOD.  
Atchison, Kansas.
- 1923 INEZ PATTERSON, A.B., '13.  
1922, *Principal* Lenox High School; Lenox, Iowa.
- 1922 O. W. PATTERSON.  
Eldorado, Kansas.
- 1921 DELLA PATTON, B.A., '12.  
1920, *Principal*, High School; Washington, Iowa.
- 1922 FRANCIS H. J. PAUL, B.A., '97; Pd.M., '02; Pd.D., '14.  
1914, *Principal*, DeWitt Clinton High School; Forest Hills,  
New York.
- 1924 W. L. PAYNE, B.S., '18.  
1923, *Principal*, Richmond Burton Community High School;  
Richmond, Illinois.
- 1923 EUNICE D. PEABODY.  
All Saints School; Sioux Falls, South Dakota.
- 1922 CHARLES E. PENCE, A.B., '08; A.M., '10.  
1914, *Principal*, Harvard School for Boys; 4731 Ellis Avenue,  
Chicago, Illinois.
- 1923 GEORGE PENNER.  
Sedgwick, Kansas.
- 1924 C. B. PENNYBACKER.  
Ardmore, Pennsylvania.
- 1921 EVERETT V. PERKINS, A.B., '05.  
1923, *Principal*, Cony High School; Augusta, Maine.
- 1923 L. T. PERRILL, B.S., '12.  
1922, *Principal*, Hunter Rural High School; Hunter, Kansas.
- 1917 CHARLES H. PERRINE, Ph.B., '92.  
1920, *Principal*, Parker High School; Chicago, Illinois.
- 1920 RALPH R. PERRINE, A.B., '06.  
1922, *Principal*, High School; Monmouth, Illinois.
- 1924 R. H. PERROTT.  
Rutland, Illinois.
- 1923 HARRY A. PETERS, B.A., '02.  
1908, *Principal*, University School; Cleveland, Ohio.
- 1921 O. E. PETERSON, A.B., '07; Ph.M., '10.  
1914, *Superintendent*, Community High School; Sycamore,  
Illinois.
- 1923 ELMER PETREE.  
Fairfax, Oklahoma.
- 1923 C. A. PETTERSON, Ph.B., '93.  
*Principal*, Carl Schurz Evening High School; Chicago, Illinois.
- 1924 ALVIN F. PETTY.  
1922, *Principal*, Benjamin Funk High School; Shirley, Illinois.
- 1924 E. O. PHARES, A.B., '22.  
1922, *Principal*, Community High School; Sheldon, Illinois.
- 1923 H. E. PHILBLAD.  
Soldier, Kansas.
- 1923 C. C. PHILLIPS.  
Strong, Maine.

- 1924 C. E. PHILLIPS, A.B., '07; A.M., '09.  
1922, *Principal*, Durham High School; Durham, North Carolina.
- 1924 EDWIN PHILLIPS.  
Hollis, Maine.
- 1923 H. S. PHILIPS, A.B., '84; A.M., '05.  
1920, *Principal*, Gove Junior High School; Denver, Colorado.
- 1924 O. B. PHILLIPS.  
Tyndall, South Dakota.
- 1923 ELI PICKWICK, JR.  
East Side High School; Newark, New Jersey.
- 1923 FRANKLIN R. PIERCE.  
Battin High School; Elizabeth, New Jersey.
- 1921 F. H. PIERCE.  
*Principal*, Jordan High School; Lewiston, Maine.
- 1924 MORTIMER W. PLUNKETT.  
7632 Henrrie Avenue, Detroit, Michigan.
- 1923 M. D. POLAND.  
Central C. and Manual Training High School; Newark, New Jersey.
- 1923 MARTHA POND.  
Business High School, Pittsburgh, Pennsylvania.
- 1922 H. J. PONITZ, Ph.B., '20.  
1923, *Principal*, High School; Sault Ste. Marie, Michigan.
- 1915 D. E. PORTER, A.B., '02.  
1919, *Principal*, Omaha Technical High School; Omaha, Nebraska.
- 1922 H. V. PORTER, B.E., '16.  
1918, *Principal*, Community High School; Athens, Illinois.
- 1923 JENNIE E. POST.  
Van Buren Junior High School; Cedar Rapids, Iowa.
- 1924 HAROLD H. POSTEL.  
Wauwatosa, Wisconsin.
- 1924 LELAH E. POTE.  
Vermilion, South Dakota.
- 1922 I. B. POTTER, A.B., '11.  
1920, *Superintendent of Schools*; Dixon, Illinois.
- 1923 J. K. POTTLE.  
Lee Academy; Lee, Maine.
- 1917 JOHN L. G. POTTORF, A.B., '03; M.E., '11; M.A., '11.  
1907, *Principal*, McKinley High School; Canton, Ohio.
- 1917 JOHN RUSH POWELL, A.B., '97; A.M., '99.  
1909, Soldan High School; St. Louis, Missouri.
- 1919 E. W. POWERS.  
Fairbury, Illinois.
- 1919 WILLIAM PRAKKEN, A.B., '98; Ph.B., '00.  
1915, *Principal*, High School; 128 Glendale Avenue, Highland Park, Michigan.
- 1923 H. E. PRATT.  
High School, Albany, New York.
- 1921 W. A. PRATT, A.B., '82; A.M., '85.  
1921, *Superintendent*, Atwood Township High School; Atwood, Illinois.

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- 1923 WALTER M. PRATT.  
Waterloo, New York.
- 1924 HELEN PRITCHARD.  
Des Moines, Iowa.
- 1923 O. G. PRICHARD, A.M., '15.  
1922, *Vice-Principal*, East High School; Des Moines, Iowa.
- 1923 ELLSWORTH PRICE.  
Jackman, Maine.
- 1924 F. C. PRINCE.  
Alliance, Nebraska.
- 1919 RALPH W. PRINGLE.  
*Principal*, High School; Illinois Normal University; Normal,  
Illinois.
- 1921 G. A. PROCK.  
*Principal*, Kennebunkport High School; Kennebunkport,  
Maine.
- 1921 CLARENCE W. PROCTOR, A.B., '98.  
1920, *Principal*, Bangor High School; Bangor, Maine.
- 1923 H. G. PROVINES.  
Oklahoma City, Oklahoma.
- 1916 MERLE PRUNTY, A.B., '09.  
1918, *Principal*, Central High School; Tulsa, Oklahoma.
- 1923 W. J. PUFFER.  
Dort Junior High School; Flint, Michigan.
- 1922 JOHN H. PUGH.  
Western Teachers' Exchange; 122 South Michigan Avenue,  
Chicago, Illinois.
- 1921 MYRTLE PULLEN, B.A., '10.  
1919, *Principal*, High School; Britt, Iowa.
- 1924 GEORGE C. PURINGTON.  
Fort Fairfield, Maine.
- 1924 R. K. PURL, B.S., '22.  
1923, *Principal*, Community High School; Dupu, Illinois.
- 1921 CLARENCE P. QUIMBY, A.B., '10.  
1923, *Principal*, High School; South Manchester, Connecticut.
- 1924 P. E. QUIRING.  
Freeman, South Dakota.
- 1924 A. W. RACE.  
Hermon, Maine.
- 1923 STUART R. RACE, A.B., '11.  
1921, *Principal*, Junior-Senior High School; Lakewood, New  
Jersey.
- 1923 FRANCIS D. RADFORD.  
Menominee, Michigan.
- 1919 JAMES RAE, B.S., '03.  
1918, *Principal*, High School and Junior College; Mason City,  
Iowa.
- 1919 L. W. RAGLAND, A.B.; A.M., '19.  
1922, *Superintendent of Schools*; Normal, Illinois.
- 1919 J. E. RAIBOURN, A.B., '96.  
1916, *Principal*, Township High School; Eldorado, Illinois.



- 1923 ALFRED C. RAMSEY, B.S., '14.  
1920, *Assistant Principal*, Montclair High School; Montclair,  
New Jersey.
- 1924 W. M. RAND.  
Boothbay Harbor, Maine.
- 1923 FOSTER S. RANDLE, A.B., '11.  
1922, *Principal*, East Side High School; Madison, Wisconsin.
- 1922 GEORGE C. RANNE.  
Roseville, Illinois.
- 1923 LEE C. RASEY, A.B., '13.  
1920, *Principal*, High School; Appleton, Wisconsin.
- 1924 F. E. RAY, B.Sc., '21.  
1923, *Principal*, Cropsey Community High School; Cropsey,  
Illinois.
- 1924 S. J. RAWSON.  
Redlowville, Maine.
- 1918 A. A. REA, A.B., '13.  
1917, *Principal*, West High School; Aurora, Illinois.
- 1923 EVERETT A. REA, JR., A.B., '20.  
1922, *Principal*, High School; Webster City, Iowa.
- 1921 W. C. REAVIS, A.M.  
1921, *Principal*, University High School; University of Chi-  
cago, Chicago, Illinois.
- 1916 ERNEST JOHN REED, A.B., '15.  
1916, *Principal*, Adrian High School; Adrian, Michigan.
- 1921 H. S. REED.  
Presque Isle, Maine.
- 1918 JOSEPH A. REED, B.S., '06; A.M., '07.  
1906, *Principal*, Franklin High School; Seattle, Wash.
- 1920 Q. RAY REEDY.  
Hamilton, Illinois.
- 1922 W. D. REEVE.  
University High School, the University of Minnesota, Minne-  
neapolis, Minnesota.
- 1920 B. L. REEVES.  
Williamsville, Illinois.
- 1924 G. H. REID.  
McNabb, Illinois.
- 1922 CECIL K. REIFF.  
*Principal*, Central High School, Muskogee, Oklahoma.
- 1924 ALBERT RENWICK, A.B., '21; A.M., '22.  
1923, *Principal*, High School; Hudson, Michigan.
- 1922 O. M. RHINE, A.B., '13.  
1920, *Principal* High School; Manhattan, Kansas.
- 1924 C. A. RICE.  
Benton Harbor, Michigan.
- 1917 CLARENCE T. RICE, A.B., B.Sc., '11; A.M., '18.  
*Principal*, Kansas City High School; Kansas City, Kansas.
- 1923 N. J. RICE.  
Brighton, Colorado.
- 1923 J. H. RICHARD, A.B., '11.  
1921, *Principal*, High School; Harveyville, Kansas.

- 1924 MYRON W. RICHARDSON.  
Principal, Girls' High School; Brighton, Massachusetts.
- 1924 RALPH D. RICHARDS.  
Rocky River, Ohio.
- 1924 S. H. RIDER.  
Wichita Falls, Texas.
- 1924 WILLIAM A. RICHARDS.  
Iola, Kansas.
- 1924 MARY O. RICHEY, B.L., '95; M.S., '97.  
1911, Oak Park and River Forest Township High School; Oak Park, Illinois.
- 1924 J. J. RIEMERSMA.  
Holland, Michigan.
- 1922 E. F. RING.  
Saybrook, Illinois.
- 1924 WILFRED HARVEY RINGER.  
High School, Gloucester, Massachusetts.
- 1922 H. A. RITCHER.  
Rutland, Illinois.
- 1921 B. J. RIVETT, S.B.  
1920, *Assistant Principal*, Northwestern High School; Detroit, Michigan.
- 1919 WILL C. ROBB, A.B., '14; A.M., '15.  
1920, *Principal*, Part-Time School, J. Sterling Morton High School; Cicero, Illinois.
- 1923 CHARLES A. ROBBINS, Ph.B., '00.  
1923, *Principal*, Mattanawcook Academy; Lincoln, Maine.
- 1923 CHESTER ROBBINS, A.B., '13; A.M., '22.  
1919, *Principal*, High School; Bridgeton, New Jersey.
- 1924 J. A. ROBERTS.  
Beresford, South Dakota.
- 1922 R. M. ROBERTSON.  
Erie, Illinois.
- 1924 L. C. ROBEY.  
Morrisonville, Illinois.
- 1923 V. H. ROBINSON.  
Oldtown, Maine.
- 1924 W. T. ROBINSON.  
Chattanooga, Tennessee.
- 1923 JOSEPH ROEMER.  
Gainesville, Florida.
- 1924 EMILY ROCKWOOD.  
Calais, Maine.
- 1916 GEORGE H. ROCKWOOD, A.B., '79; A.M., '82.  
1900, *Principal*, Austin High School; 5417 Fulton Street, Chicago, Illinois.
- 1917 WILLIAM S. ROE, A.B., '05; A.M., '15.  
1920, *Principal*, Colorado Springs High School; Colorado Springs, Colorado.
- 1922 ANNA ROGERS-PARR.  
Brownstown, Illinois.
- 1923 S. O. ROREM.  
Sioux City, Iowa.

- 1923 HARVEY M. ROSA, A.B., '14.  
1922, *Principal*, City High School; River Rouge, Michigan.
- 1924 H. E. ROSENBERG.  
Findlay, Illinois.
- 1923 H. J. ROSS.  
Mexico, Maine.
- 1922 JOHN G. ROSSMAN.  
Fort Smith, Arkansas.
- 1923 G. E. ROUDEBUSH, B.Sc., '18; M.A., '23.  
1920, *Principal*, South High School; Lima, Ohio.
- 1922 H. C. RUCKMICK.  
Leroy, Illinois.
- 1922 JOHN RUFF, B.S., '18; M.A., '20.  
1921, *Principal*, Luther L. Wright High School; Ironwood,  
Michigan.
- 1924 H. C. RULE.  
Parsons, Kansas.
- 1923 JAMES N. RULE, B.S., '98; M.S., '01.  
1921, Department of Public Instruction, Harrisburg, Pennsylv-  
ania.
- 1922 CHESTER A. RUMBLE.  
Hume, Illinois.
- 1924 C. E. RUSSELL, A.B., '15.  
1923, *Principal*, Westfield Township High School; Westfield,  
Illinois.
- 1918 J. B. RUSSELL.  
Wheaton, Illinois.
- 1922 W. G. RUSSELL.  
Manual Training High School; Hume, Illinois.
- 1924 W. R. RYAN, A.B., '19.  
1922, American Book Company; Chicago, Illinois.
- 1916 EDWARD RYNEARSON, A.B., '93; A.M., '96; Ped.D., '19.  
1912, *Principal*, Fifth Avenue High School; 1800 Fifth Avenue,  
Pittsburgh, Pennsylvania.
- 1920 R. M. SALEE.  
Oneida, Illinois.
- 1924 V. E. SAMMONO.  
Hot Springs, National Park, Arkansas.
- 1922 A. B. SANDIFER.  
1921, *Principal*, High School; Brownstown, Illinois.
- 1916 R. L. SANDWICK, A.B., '95.  
1903, *Principal*, Deerfield-Shields Township High School;  
Highland Park, Illinois.
- 1923 LINA E. SANGER, B.A., '16.  
1918, *Principal*, High School; Bridgewater, Virginia.
- 1922 EDWARD SAUVAIN, Ph.B.  
1919, *Principal*, Schenley High School; Pittsburgh, Pennsylv-  
ania.
- 1923 SAMUEL P. SAVAGE, B.Pd., '11; A.B., '22.  
1922, *Principal*, High School; Owosso, Michigan.
- 1924 T. E. SAVAGE.  
Argenta, Illinois.

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- 1923 RAY SAWHILL.  
Kanopolis, Kansas.
- 1922 M. A. SCHALCK.  
Rollo, Illinois.
- 1923 GEORGE E. SCHILLING, A.B., '00; A.M., '20.  
1919, *Principal*, High School; Bradford, Pennsylvania.
- 1921 REV. HERBERT SCHISLER, A.B., '14.  
1920, *Rector*, St. Bede College Academy; Peru, Illinois.
- 1922 F. L. SCHLAGLE.  
Kansas City, Kansas.
- 1924 I. L. SCHLUTER.  
Onaway, Michigan.
- 1924 L. E. SCHLYTTE.  
Wittenberg, Wisconsin.
- 1920 O. I. SCHMAELZLE, B.S., '20.  
1921, *Principal*, High School; Morton, Illinois.
- 1924 CLAYTON SCHMIDT.  
Wilmot, South Dakota.
- 1919 H. G. SCHMIDT, A.B., '02; B.S., '07; A.M., '10.  
1915, *Principal*, Township High School; Belleville, Illinois.
- 1918 PARKE SCHOCK, A.B.; '88; A.M., '91.  
1912, *Principal*, West Philadelphia High School for Girls;  
Philadelphia, Pennsylvania.
- 1923 RALEIGH SCHORLING.  
Teachers' College, Lincoln School; New York City.
- 1922 C. B. SCHREPEL, Ph.B., '19; A.M., '20.  
1921, *Superintendent of Schools*; Burns, Kansas.
- 1924 A. G. SCHROEDERMEIER.  
Linwood, Kansas.
- 1920 E. M. SCHUENEMAN.  
Nashville, Illinois.
- 1924 J. M. SCOVILLE.  
Walden, Colorado.
- 1924 A. B. SCOTT.  
Bath, Maine.
- 1921 O. M. SEARLES.  
Albert Teachers' Agency; Chicago, Illinois.
- 1920 JOHN L. SEATON, A.B., S.T.B., Ph.D., D.D.  
1919, *College Secretary*, Board of Education, Methodist Episcopal Church; 150 Fifth Avenue, New York City.
- 1922 C. F. SEIDEL, A.B., '14; A.M., '17.  
1918, Junior High School; Allentown, Pennsylvania.
- 1923 E. O. SELFRIDGE, A.B., '20.  
1922, *Principal*, High School; Denison, Colorado.
- 1916 WALTER E. SEVERANCE, A.B., '95; A.M., '02.  
1918, *Principal*, Central High School; Harrisburg, Pennsylvania.
- 1924 A. O. H. SETZEPPANDT.  
Eagle Grove, Iowa.
- 1924 J. A. SEXSON.  
Sterling, Colorado.
- 1920 B. F. SHAFER, A.B., '14; A.M., '23.  
1922, *Superintendent of Schools*; Jacksonville, Illinois.

- 1922 J. P. SHAND.  
Hudson, Michigan.
- 1922 B. C. SHANKLAND.  
*Principal*, High School; Cadillac, Michigan.
- 1924 ROY B. SHARROCK.  
Euclid, Ohio.
- 1924 B. B. SHAW.  
Bridgewater, South Dakota.
- 1921 CHARLES SHAW.  
Gorham, Maine.
- 1923 W. F. SHAW, A.B., '13; M.S., '21.  
1921, *Principal*, Central Junior High School; Kansas City,  
Kansas.
- 1924 S. L. SHEEP.  
Elizabeth City, North Carolina.
- 1923 JOHN W. SHIDELER, Ph.B., '09; A.M., '21.  
1921, *Principal*, High School; Fort Scott, Kansas.
- 1924 H. P. SHIELDS.  
Bowen, Illinois.
- 1923 F. J. SICKLES.  
Millville, New Jersey.
- 1923 HARRY C. SIEBER, B.S., '09; Pd.M., '22.  
1920, *Principal*, High School; Red Bank, New Jersey.
- 1922 XERXES SILVER, A.B., '14.  
1922, *Superintendent of Schools*; San Jose, Illinois.
- 1916 DAVID P. SIMPSON, A.B., '92; A.M., '95; LL.B., '09.  
1911, *Principal*, West High School; Cleveland, Ohio.
- 1922 M. R. SIMPSON, A.B.  
1920, *Principal*, High School; Bucyrus, Ohio.
- 1923 W. F. SIMPSON, A.B., '15; A.M., '23.  
1921, *Principal*, High School; Shelby, Ohio.
- 1924 WILLIAM A. SIMPSON.  
Bridgton, Maine.
- 1924 IRMA F. SIPLING.  
Missouri Valley, Iowa.
- 1920 AVERY W. SKINNER, A.B., '92.  
1920, Director of Examinations and Inspections Division;  
Albany, New York.
- 1924 W. H. SKINNER.  
La Crosse, Kansas.
- 1924 R. W. SKINNER.  
Rapid City, South Dakota.
- 1919 LOUIS PALMER SLADE, A.B., '93; A.M., '97.  
1912, *Principal*, Public High School; New Britain, Connecticut.
- 1922 CHARLES H. SLATER, Ph.B.  
1921, *Principal*, Cleveland High School; St. Louis, Missouri.
- 1923 F. E. SLEEPER, JR.  
Litchfield, Maine.
- 1924 F. G. SLENTZ.  
Greenville, Michigan.
- 1923 C. V. SLOAN, M.S., '05.  
1910, *Principal*, High School; Phillipsburg, New Jersey.

- 1923 N. B. SLOAN, A.B., '97.  
*Principal*, Central High School; Bay City, Michigan.
- 1923 H. W. SLOTHOWER, B.S., A.B., '15.  
 1921, *Principal*, High School; Mount Union, Pennsylvania.
- 1922 BESSIE SMART, A.B., '21.  
 1922, *Superintendent*, Community High School; Milledgeville.  
 Illinois.
- 1923 M. C. SMART.  
 Pennell Institute; Gray, Maine.
- 1923 EUGENE SMEATHERS.  
 Rahway, New Jersey.
- 1922 CALEB W. SMICK.  
 Oberlin, Kansas.
- 1923 JAMES B. SMILEY.  
 Lincoln High School; Cleveland, Ohio.
- 1924 A. E. SMITH, Ph.B., '20.  
 1923, *Principal*, High School; Neponset, Illinois.
- 1923 ALWYN C. SMITH.  
 Broadway Junior High School; Denver, Colorado.
- 1922 C. A. SMITH.  
 Attica, Indiana.
- 1922 C. H. SMITH, M.E., '85.  
 1890, *Assistant Principal*, Hyde Park High School; Chicago,  
 Illinois.
- 1920 CHARLES W. SMITH.  
 Winchester, Illinois.
- 1924 C. L. SMITH.  
 Belfast, Maine.
- 1922 ERMAN S. SMITH, B.S., '00.  
 1907, *Superintendent of Schools*; Barrington, Illinois.
- 1924 EVERETT P. SMITH.  
 Sebago, Maine.
- 1922 G. ERNEST SMITH.  
 Elkhart, Illinois.
- 1924 G. T. SMITH.  
 4932 Lake Park, Chicago, Illinois.
- 1924 HOYT D. SMITH, A.B., '21.  
 1923, *Principal*, Gill Consolidated School; Gill, Colorado.
- 1923 JAMES F. SMITH.  
 912 Markham Avenue, Durham, North Carolina.
- 1924 J. H. SMITH.  
 Lowell, Arkansas.
- 1918 L. C. SMITH, A.B., '05.  
 1922, Wenona, Illinois.
- 1923 LENA M. SMITH.  
 Meade, Kansas.
- 1916 LEWIS WILBER SMITH, A.B., '02; A.M., '13; Ph.D., '19.  
 1919, *Principal*, Joliet Township High School and Junior Col-  
 lege; Joliet, Illinois.
- 1923 LLOYD SMITH, A.B., '16.  
 1919, *Principal*, High School; Ionia, Michigan.
- 1922 O. O. SMITH.  
 Chapman, Kansas.



- 1921 R. H. G. SMITH.  
Rushville, Illinois.
- 1923 WELLS SMITH.  
Kit Carson, Colorado.
- 1923 WILLIAM L. SMITH, A.B., '95; A.M., '05.  
1901, *Principal*, Alleghany High School; Pittsburgh, Pennsylvania.
- 1924 W. O. SMITH.  
Keene, New Hampshire.
- 1923 ROBERT SMYLYE, JR.  
Dows, Iowa.
- 1924 IVAN U. SNYDER.  
Montrose, Kansas:
- 1916 WILLIAM H. SNYDER, A.B., '85; A.M., '88; D.Sc., '08.  
1908, *Principal*, Hollywood High School; Los Angeles, California.
- 1924 WARREN E. SNORER.  
Sheffield, Illinois.
- 1923 IRWIN B. SOMERVILLE.  
Ridgewood, New Jersey.
- 1924 R. W. SNYDER.  
Lindsay, California.
- 1923 D. W. SPANGLER.  
Longmont, Colorado.
- 1924 OLIVER SORLIEN.  
Louisville, Kentucky.
- 1924 JEWELL SPARLING.  
Croswell, Michigan.
- 1924 R. B. SPARKS.  
Plainview, Texas.
- 1923 L. H. SPENCER, B.A., '21; M.A., '22.  
1922, *Principal*, High School; Glenwood, Iowa.
- 1924 E. B. SPAULDING.  
Gary, Indiana.
- 1921 C. E. SPICER.  
*Assistant Superintendent*, Joliet Township High School and  
Junior College; Joliet, Illinois.
- 1921 M. H. SPICER, B.A., '17.  
1921, *Principal*, High School; Washington, Illinois.
- 1924 R. L. SPIRES.  
Paxton, Illinois.
- 1924 (MRS.) LUCY M. SPRAGUE.  
Crete, Nebraska.
- 1921 ASA SPRUNGER, A.B., '14.  
1920, *Assistant Principal*, High School; Decatur, Illinois.
- 1924 CHARLES E. SPRINGMEYER.  
Brooklyn, New York.
- 1919 FRANK W. STAHL, Ph.B.  
1918, *Principal*, Bowen High School; Chicago; Illinois.
- 1920 FLORENCE M. STAINES, B.A., '11.  
1917, *Principal*, High School; Eldora, Iowa.
- 1920 RAYMOND E. STALEY, A.B., '12.  
1920, *Principal*, Beall High School; Frostburg, Maryland.

- 1922 L. L. STANDLEY.  
Chenoa, Illinois.
- 1923 E. L. STARRETT.  
Kingman, Kansas.
- 1918 WAYLAND E. STEARNS, A.B., '85; A.M., '94.  
1899, *Principal*, Barringer High School; Sixth Avenue, Ridge  
and Parker Streets, Newark, New Jersey.
- 1924 MINNIE L. STECKEL, A.B., '17.  
1921, *Principal*, High School; Atlantic, Iowa.
- 1924 F. B. STEECE.  
Wagner, South Dakota.
- 1923 J. H. STEELE, E.M., '00.  
1921, *Assistant Principal*, Manual Training High School, Den-  
ver, Colorado.
- 1916 H. T. STEEPER, A.B., '09.  
1918, *Principal*, West High School; Des Moines, Iowa.
- 1924 R. B. STENINGER, B.S., '18.  
1923, *Principal*, High School; Beason, Illinois.
- 1924 M. R. STEPHAN, B.E., '23.  
1923, *Superintendent of Schools*; Dakota, Illinois.
- 1923 M. H. STEPHENS.  
Creston, Iowa.
- 1923 R. L. STEINHEIMER.  
Junction City, Kansas.
- 1924 R. B. STERRINGER.  
Beason, Illinois.
- 1922 E. G. STEVENS, B.Ed., '16.  
1917, *Principal*, Township High School, Rantoul, Illinois.
- 1924 DONALD B. STEVENS.  
Brattleboro, Vermont.
- 1920 E. R. STEVENS, B.S., '18.  
1920, *Principal*, High School; Leavenworth, Kansas.
- 1922 GEORGE C. STEVENS.  
Kiowa, Kansas.
- 1924 EVERETT R. STEVENSON.  
Palmyra, Illinois.
- 1916 FRED G. STEVENSON, A.B., '08.  
1917, *Principal*, High School; 1564 Iowa Street, Dubuque, Iowa.
- 1924 C. E. STEWART, A.B., '20; A.M., '22.  
1910, *Superintendent*, Washington County High School Sys-  
tem; Akron, Colorado.
- 1924 JOHN W. STEWART.  
Scienceville, Ohio.
- 1922 ANDREW STEVENS.  
Keyesport, Illinois.
- 1924 H. V. STEWART, B.S., '16; M.S., '24.  
1921, *Principal*, High School; Lansford, Pennsylvania.
- 1920 BENNETT M. STIGALL, A.B., '01; A.M., '05.  
1919, *Assistant Superintendent of Schools*; 3729 Walnut Street,  
Kansas City, Missouri.
- 1924 D. H. STIMPSON.  
Patten, Maine.

- 1920 W. E. STILWELL, A. B., '01; A.M., '03.  
1903, *Headmaster*, University School; Cincinnati, Ohio.
- 1924 L. V. STOCKARD.  
Dallas, Texas.
- 1922 WILLIAM R. STOCKING, A.B., A.M., '13.  
1923, *Principal*, Central High School; Detroit, Michigan.
- 1922 EDNA B. STOLT, B. A., '23.  
1921, *Principal*, High School, Independence, Iowa.
- 1923 C. H. STONE.  
Wheatridge, Colorado.
- 1924 G. FRANK STONE, A.B., '19.  
1923, *Principal*, Leavitt Institute; Turner Center, Maine.
- 1921 J. B. STOUT, A.B., '17.  
1919, *Principal*, High School; Shabbona, Illinois.
- 1923 E. S. STOVES.  
Bloomfield, New Jersey.
- 1924 J. C. STRALEY.  
Cherokee, Kansas.
- 1921 RALPH E. STRINGER, A.B., '16.  
1921, *Principal*, High School; Herrin, Illinois.
- 1923 EVERETT STROUD.  
Havana, Kansas.
- 1924 (Mrs.) MARY STROUD.  
Bunker Hill, Kansas.
- 1924 ERVIN STUART.  
Monson Academy, Monson, Maine.
- 1923 MILO H. STUART, A.B.  
1912, *Principal*, Arsenal Technical High School; Indianapolis, Indiana.
- 1923 ARTHUR E. STUKEY, B.S., '10.  
1918, *Principal*, High School; Fort Lee, New Jersey.
- 1920 E. H. STULKENS.  
Sullivan, Illinois.
- 1919 J. G. STULL.  
DuQuoin, Illinois.
- 1924 FRANK P. SULLIVAN.  
Chicago, Illinois.
- 1921 WALTER E. SULLIVAN, A.B., '02.  
1913, *Principal*, High School; Brewer, Maine.
- 1922 WM. SCOTT SUTTON.  
Forest City, Illinois.
- 1924 JOHN SWAN.  
Bridgewater, South Dakota.
- 1919 ORVILLE M. SWANK, A.B., '07.  
1919, *Principal*, Anna-Jonesboro Community High School; Anna, Illinois.
- 1921 HAROLD B. SWICKER, B.A.  
1921, *Principal*, High School; Guilford, Maine.
- 1922 C. F. SWITZER.  
Lyon and Barclay Streets, Grand Rapids, Michigan.
- 1924 W. E. SWITZER.  
Wabeno, Wisconsin.

- 1923 R. R. TARBELL.  
Sagauche, Colorado.
- 1920 I. D. TAUBENECK, B.Ed.  
1919, *Superintendent of Schools*; Minier, Illinois.
- 1923 ARCHIBALD TAYLOR, Litt.B., '09.  
1922, *Principal*, High School; Longmont, Colorado.
- 1924 CHARLES E. TAYLOR.  
Gardiner, Maine.
- 1923 JAMES F. TAYLOR.  
Duluth, Minnesota.
- 1923 JOSIAH W. TAYLOR, B. A., '02.  
1910, *Agent for Secondary Education*, Department of Education; Augusta, Maine.
- 1924 LOUIS L. TAYLOR.  
Harrisburg, Ohio.
- 1922 HARRY TAYLOR.  
Harrisburg, Illinois.
- 1924 A. E. TAYLOR.  
Palisade, Colorado.
- 1923 R. B. TAYLOR.  
Norristown, Pennsylvania.
- 1923 R. R. TAYLOR, A.B., '16.  
1919, *Principal*, High School; Ingalls, Kansas.
- 1924 M. L. TEST, B.S., '92.  
1919, *Superintendent*, City Schools, Petersburg, Illinois.
- 1922 G. A. TEWELL.  
Carey, Kansas.
- 1921 W. P. THACKER.  
Nokomis, Illinois.
- 1916 J. L. THALMAN, A.B., '00; A.M., '10.  
1917, *Principal*, Proviso Township High School; Maywood, Illinois.
- 1923 V. T. THAYER, Ph.D., '16.  
1922, *Principal*, High School Department, Ethical Culture School; 33 Central Park, West, New York City.
- 1922 BROTHER THEOPHIBES.  
Holy Trinity High School; Chicago, Illinois.
- 1922 P. E. THERWALT.  
Litchfield, Illinois.
- 1921 JAMES E. THOMAS, A.B., '79.  
1911, *Headmaster*, High School, Dorchester, Massachusetts.
- 1920 M. SMITH THOMAS.  
1919, *Principal*, Hutchinson Central High School; Buffalo, New York.
- 1923 MALCOLM L. THOMAS.  
Woodbury, New Jersey.
- 1924 D. W. THOMPSON, B.S., '21.  
1922, *Principal*, Warren Township High School; Gurnee, Illinois.
- 1920 FRANK E. THOMPSON, A.B., '71; A.M., '75; Ed.D., '19.  
1890, *Headmaster*, Rogers High School; 15 Champlin Street, Newport, Rhode Island.

- 1924 G. E. THOMPSON.  
St. Charles, Illinois.
- 1921 G. H. THOMPSON.  
Marissa, Illinois.
- 1923 LEIGHTON S. THOMPSON, Ed.M., '23; B.A., '11.  
1920, *Principal*, High School; Swampscott, Massachusetts
- 1923 LLOYD V. THOMPSON, A.B., '22.  
1922, *Principal*, Simla Union High School; Simla, Colorado.
- 1919 WILLIS THOMPSON, A.B., '18.  
1919, *Principal*, High School; Woodstock, Illinois.
- 1923 G. E. THORPE.  
Houghton, Michigan.
- 1921 C. H. THRELKELD, B.S.  
*Principal*, North High School; Des Moines, Iowa.
- 1924 MABEL E. TICHENOR.  
Princeton, Indiana.
- 1923 RAY J. TIDMAN.  
Cedar Falls, Iowa.
- 1922 W. E. TIETBOHL, A.B.  
1916, *Principal*, Dunbar Township High School; Connells-  
ville, Pennsylvania.
- 1922 B. C. TIGHE, Ph.B., '08; Ph.M., '10.  
1913, *Principal*, High School; Fargo, North Dakota.
- 1921 CHARLES C. TILLINGHAST, A.B., '06; A.M., '17.  
1920, *Principal*, Horace Mann School for Boys; 11 West 246th  
Street, New York City.
- 1924 S. B. TINSLEY.  
Louisville, Kentucky.
- 1923 W. D. TISDALE.  
Ramsey Boro High School; Hohokus, New Jersey.
- 1921 T. C. TOOKER.  
*Principal*, High School; Freeport, Maine.
- 1922 HOMER C. TOOTHMAN, B.A., '13.  
1920, *Principal*, West Monongah High School; Monongah,  
West Virginia.
- 1922 FRANK C. TOUTON, Ph.B., '01; A.M., '17; Ph.D., '19.  
1922, *Professor of Education*, University of Southern Califor-  
nia; Los Angeles, California.
- 1921 E. D. TOWLER, B.Pd., '13; B.S., '16.  
1921, *Principal*, La Grande High School; La Grande, Oregon.
- 1922 JANE TOWNSEND, B.S., '17.  
1917, *Principal*, Girard High School; Girard, Kansas.
- 1923 GEORGE E. TOZER, A.B., '14.  
1919, *Principal*, High School; Windsor, Colorado.
- 1924 M. A. TRABERT.  
Knoxville, Iowa.
- 1924 ERVIN E. TRASK.  
Bridgewater, Maine.
- 1924 J. P. TREAT.  
Manitou, Colorado.
- 1924 J. H. TREFZ, A.B., '20; M.A., '22.  
1923, *Principal*, Centerville High School; Centerville, Iowa.

- 1919 ELOISE R. TREMAIN, A.B., '04.  
1918, *Principal*, Ferry Hall; Lake Forest, Illinois.
- 1919 J. H. TRINKLE, B.S., '04; A.B., '11.  
1911, *Principal*, Township High School; Newman, Illinois.
- 1922 A. G. TRITT.  
412 N. Emporia Avenue, Concordia, Kansas.
- 1924 J. C. TROUTMAN.  
Roswell, New Mexico.
- 1923 GLENN E. TRUE.  
Dowagiac, Michigan.
- 1922 B. W. TRUESDELL.  
1915, *Vice-Principal*, Wichita High School; Wichita, Kansas.
- 1921 H. H. TRUFANT.  
*Principal*, Parsonfield Seminary; Parsonfield, Maine.
- 1923 J. W. TRUSDALE.  
Oskaloosa, Kansas.
- 1923 R. M. TRYON, A.B., '07; A.M., '12; Ph.D., '15.  
1913, The University of Chicago; Chicago, Illinois.
- 1919 ESTON V. TUBBS, A.B., '09; A.M., '10.  
1919, *Principal*, New Trier Township High School; Kenilworth, Illinois.
- 1924 ALONZO H. TUCK.  
Wytotitlock, Maine.
- 1921 B. X. TUCKER, B.S., '00; A.B., '01; M.S., '03.  
1907, *Principal*, Union High School; Richmond, California.
- 1921 IDA C. TURNBULL.  
Mattoon, Illinois.
- 1917 L. T. TURPIN, Ph.B., '06.  
1921, *Principal*, Washington Senior High School; Cedar Rapids, Iowa.
- 1923 V. Y. TUTTLE, B.S., '20.  
1922, *Principal*, Boyne City High School; Boyne City, Michigan.
- 1924 E. T. UMBAUGH, A.B., '12.  
1923, *Principal*, High School; New Berlin, Illinois.
- 1923 A. G. UMBREIT, A.B., '14; M.A., '21.  
1921, *Principal*, High School, Boone, Iowa.
- 1922 H. E. UNDERBRINK, B.E., '20.  
1922, *Principal*, High School; Libertyville, Illinois.
- 1924 JOHN C. UNGER.  
Hugo, Colorado.
- 1922 WILLIAM URBAN, B.A., '04.  
1909, *Principal*, High School; Sheboygan, Wisconsin.
- 1919 M. S. VANCE.  
Oblong, Illinois.
- 1923 RALPH VAN HOESEN.  
Alma, Michigan.
- 1923 H. J. VAN NESS, A.B., '19; M.A., '20.  
1923, *Principal*, High School; Red Oak, Iowa.
- 1922 M. W. VAN PUTTEN.  
1919, *Principal*, High School; Mason, Michigan.
- 1922 W. N. VAN SLYCK, A.B., '14.  
1921, *Principal*, High School; Salina, Kansas.



- 1923 BLOYSE M. VAUGHN, A.B., '12.  
1923, *Principal*, High School; Dayton, Nevada.
- 1919 COSMOS C. VESELEY, A.B., '10.  
1914, *Rector*, St. Procopius Academy; Lisle, Illinois.
- 1922 W. L. VIAR.  
Ursa, Illinois.
- 1923 E. G. VILLERS.  
Durant, Oklahoma.
- 1923 W. N. VIOLA.  
Evart, Michigan.
- 1924 EDWARD F. VOSS.  
Doland, South Dakota.
- 1923 L. D. VOTAW, A.B., '10; B.S., '10; A.M., '22.  
1921, *Principal*, High School; Colorado Springs, Colorado.
- 1916 CLIFFORD GILBERT WADE, B.S., '96; M.A., '15.  
1913, *Principal*, Superior High School; 793 W. Fourth Street,  
Superior, Wisconsin.
- 1924 M. CHANNING WAGNER, A.B., '13; M.A., '23.  
1923, *Principal*, Wilmington High School; Wilmington, Delaware.
- 1920 J. E. WAKELEY, A.B., '14.  
1919, *Assistant Principal*, Danville High School; Danville, Illinois.
- 1911 KARL DOUGLAS WALDO, A.B., '06; A.M., '14.  
1914, *Principal*, East High School; 24 Hickory Avenue, Aurora,  
Illinois.
- 1920 W. D. WALDRIP, A.B., '03.  
1916, *Principal*, Streator Township High School; Streator, Illinois.
- 1919 ALBERT WALKER.  
Arthur, Illinois.
- 1924 CARLETON L. WALKER.  
Alfred, Maine.
- 1922 H. A. C. WALKER.  
Lynchburg, Va.
- 1922 SAMUEL T. WALKER.  
Allerton, Illinois.
- 1924 DEWITT WALLER.  
Enid, Oklahoma.
- 1922 F. J. WALLACE.  
Kirkwood, Illinois.
- 1920 J. B. WALLACE.  
Rock Falls, Illinois.
- 1922 S. M. WALLACE.  
Waterloo, Iowa.
- 1924 A. S. WALLGREN, A.B., '09.  
1919, *Dean* of Junior College and Academy, North Park College;  
5236 N. Kimball Avenue, Chicago, Illinois.
- 1923 CHARLOTTE WALES.  
State Normal School; Oswego, New York.
- 1922 PRENTICE T. WALTERS.  
Arcola, Illinois.

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- 1923 R. J. WALTERS, A.M., '14; Litt.D., '20.  
1915, *Superintendent of Schools*, Public Schools; Rocky Ford, Colorado.
- 1919 GEORGE A. WALTON, A. B., '04; A.M., '07.  
1912, *Principal*, George School; George School, Pennsylvania.
- 1923 M. C. WALTZ.  
Canton, Maine.
- 1922 DOUGLAS WAPLES, A.M., '17; Ph.D., '20.  
1920, Tufts College; Boston, Massachusetts.
- 1923 J. J. WARD.  
Castle Rock, Colorado.
- 1923 R. W. WARD, A.B., '19.  
1919, *Principal*, Mount Clemens High School; Mount Clemens, Michigan.
- 1923 ALICE F. WARNER.  
Durand, Michigan.
- 1924 RAYMOND C. WASS.  
Standish, Maine.
- 1923 C. B. WASHBURN.  
Lisbon, Maine.
- 1924 O. V. WASHLER.  
Langdon, Kansas.
- 1922 W. H. WASSON.  
Toledo, Illinois.
- 1922 G. E. WATKINS.  
Garnett, Kansas.
- 1923 T. W. WATKINS, A.B., '06; Ed.M., '22.  
1923, *Principal*, Kent's Hill Seminary; Kent's Hill, Maine.
- 1918 HERBERT S. WEAVER.  
*Principal*, High School of Practical Arts; Boston, Massachusetts.
- 1923 R. O. WEBB.  
Wilson, Oklahoma.
- 1919 MAUD WEBSTER, B.S., '05.  
University of Illinois; Urbana, Illinois.
- 1924 ADA LOUIS WECKEL, B.A., '01; M.S., '08.  
1910, *Head Biology Department*, Oak Park and River Forest Township High School; Oak Park, Illinois.
- 1924 FRED E. WEED.  
Athol, Kansas.
- 1921 N. H. WEEKS, B.A., '94.  
1923, *Principal*, Abraham Lincoln High School; Des Moines, Iowa.
- 1916 DAVID E. WEGLEIN, Ph.D., '16; A.M., '12; A.B., '97.  
1924, *First Assistant Superintendent of Education*, Johns Hopkins University; Baltimore, Maryland.
- 1917 J. F. WELLEMAYER, A.B., '06; M.A., '14.  
1917, *Principal*, Senior High School; 1208 Jersey Street, Quincy, Illinois.
- 1923 CORD WELLS.  
Nashville, Kansas.

- 1916 DORA WELLS, B.A., '84; M.A., '98.  
1911, *Principal*, Lucy L. Flower Technical High School; 6059  
Wabash Avenue, Chicago, Illinois.
- 1924 C. E. WERDEN.  
Gedes, South Dakota.
- 1921 L. J. WEST.  
Bar Harbor, Maine.
- 1924 MILDRED G. WEST.  
Knoxville, Illinois.
- 1924 R. O. WEST.  
West Allis, Wisconsin.
- 1921 JAMES H. WESTFALL.  
Crossville, Illinois.
- 1917 WM. A. WETZEL, A.B., '91; Ph.D., '95.  
1901, *Principal*, High School; 12 Belmont Circle, Trenton, New  
Jersey.
- 1922 GEORGE D. WHAM.  
Carbondale, Illinois.
- 1923 C. D. WHEATON.  
1922, *Principal*, Yale High School; Yale, Michigan.
- 1921 W. H. WHEELER.  
Kankakee, Illinois.
- 1924 A. R. WHEELLESS.  
Delhi, Iowa.
- 1923 KARL E. WHINNEY, Ph.B., '12; M.A., '15.  
1921, *Principal*, Sandusky High School; Sandusky, Ohio.
- 1923 A. F. WHISNANT.  
Cawker City, Kansas.
- 1924 E. H. WHITE, B.S., '97.  
1923, *Superintendent of Schools*, Hume Public Schools; Hume,  
Illinois.
- 1921 F. U. WHITE.  
Galva, Illinois.
- 1923 (MRS.) MAME E. WHITE.  
Hartland, Michigan.
- 1923 FRANK P. WHITNEY.  
W. Technical High School; Cleveland, Ohio.
- 1917 C. W. WHITTEN, A.B., '06.  
1922, *Manager*, Illinois High School Athletic Association; De  
Kalb, Illinois.
- 1922 H. K. WHITTIER.  
Sherrard, Illinois.
- 1916 WILLIAM WIENER, A.B., '88; A.M., '89; Ph.B., '91.  
1912, *Principal*, Central Commercial and Manual Training High  
School; Newark, New Jersey.
- 1923 A. S. WIGHT.  
Lincolnville, Kansas.
- 1923 W. F. WILCOX.  
Mancelona, Michigan.
- 1923 D. L. WILDE.  
Charlotte, Michigan.
- 1922 G. M. WILEY, B.A., '06.  
1921, *Principal*, La Crosse High School; La Crosse, Wisconsin.

- 1923 ROSS B. WILEY.  
2174 S. Grand Street, Denver, Colorado.
- 1920 H. A. WILK, A.B., '20.  
Colfax, Illinois.
- 1919 M. P. WILKINS.  
Christopher, Illinois.
- 1924 G. W. WILLETT.  
LaGrange, Illinois.
- 1923 A. B. WILLIAMS.  
Junior High School; Old Town, Maine.
- 1920 FRANK L. WILLIAMS, A.B., '89; A.M., '07.  
1908, Sumner High School; St. Louis, Missouri.
- 1923 G. F. WILLIAMS, A.B., '08; M.A., '10.  
1917, *Principal*, Anson Academy; North Anson, Maine.
- 1922 LEWIS W. WILLIAMS.  
University High School; Urbana, Illinois.
- 1924 MATTIE WILLIAMS.  
Snyder, Arkansas.
- 1924 R. J. WILLIAMS.  
Danvers, Illinois.
- 1924 R. W. WILLIAMS.  
Scotland, South Dakota.
- 1920 M. H. WILLING.  
1920, *Principal*, High School; Springfield, Illinois.
- 1921 URBAN G. WILLIS, A.B., '00; A.M., '10.  
1919, *Principal*, The Pullman Free School of Manual Training;  
250 East 111th Street, Chicago, Illinois.
- 1923 C. C. WILSON.  
Lincoln High School; Jersey City, New Jersey.
- 1921 CLINTON D. WILSON.  
*Principal*, Morse High School; Bath, Maine.
- 1919 F. A. WILSON.  
1919, *Principal*, Community High School; West Frankfort,  
Illinois.
- 1923 G. T. WILSON.  
Fowler, Colorado.
- 1922 JAMES H. WILSON.  
Rocky Ford, Colorado.
- 1924 L. A. WILSON.  
Mitchell, South Dakota.
- 1919 (MRS.) LUCY L. WILSON, Ph. D., '97.  
1916, *Principal*, South Philadelphia High School for Girls;  
2101 S. Broad Street, Philadelphia, Pennsylvania.
- 1922 O. N. WING, A.B., '16.  
1922, *Principal*, Central Y. M. C. A. Day Preparatory School;  
19 S. La Salle Street, Chicago, Illinois.
- 1924 W. E. WING.  
Deering High School; Portland, Maine.
- 1923 H. E. WINNER, Ph.B., '01; A.M., '04; Ph.M., '21.  
*Principal*, South Hills High School; Pittsburgh, Pennsylvania.
- 1924 PEARL WINDSOR.  
Iron River, Michigan.

- 1924 H. L. WINSLOW.  
Cumberland Center, Maine.
- 1920 (MRS.) A. T. WISE, B.C.S., '19.  
1915, *Principal*, Commercial High School; Atlanta, Georgia.
- 1924 WILLIAM D. WOLFE.  
Hiawatha, Kansas.
- 1924 BEULAH WOOD.  
Petersburg, Illinois.
- 1924 CARLTON P. WOOD.  
Camden, Maine.
- 1924 FLORA L. WOOD, A.B., '23.  
1923, *Principal*, Durand High School; Durand, Michigan.
- 1922 R. C. WOODARD, A.B., '08.  
1920, *Principal*, Haviland High School; Haviland, Kansas.
- 1922 W. E. WOODARD, A.B., '10; B.S., '11.  
1919, *Principal and Superintendent*, Montezuma Consolidated School Montezuma, Kansas.
- 1921 E. R. WOODBURY.  
Thornton Academy Saco, Maine.
- 1923 LEE W. WOODMAN, A.B., '13 A.M., '20.  
*Principal*, Woodbridge High School; Woodbridge, New Jersey.
- 1922 C. A. WOODWORTH.  
1917, *Principal*, West New York High School; West New York, New Jersey.
- 1924 ELBERT C. WORROM.  
Cleveland, Ohio.
- 1922 E. H. WORTHINGTON, A.B., '13; A.M., '14.  
1918, Cheltenham High School; Elkins Park, Pennsylvania.
- 1924 RICHARD A. WORSTELL.  
Cardwell, Montana.
- 1921 I. M. WRIGLEY, A.B., '11.  
1921, *Principal*, Mt. Pulaski Township High School; Mt. Pulaski, Illinois.
- 1924 HERBERT M. WORTMAN.  
La Grange, Maine.
- 1921 W. P. WYATT.  
Riverside, Illinois.
- 1924 HORACE J. WUBBEN, A.B., '17.  
1923, *Principal*, Rio Grande County High School; Monte Vista, Colorado.
- 1921 C. E. WYGANT, B.S., '12.  
1920, *Principal*, High School; Ames, Iowa.
- 1923 WM. J. WYSE.  
Hoboken, New Jersey.
- 1923 S. H. YARNELL, B.S., '22.  
1922, *Principal*, Ingham Township Agricultural School, Dansville, Michigan.
- 1916 LEONARD YOUNG, A.B., '98.  
1910, *Principal*, Central High School; Lake Avenue and Second Street, Duluth, Minnesota.
- 1924 O. O. YOUNG, A.B., '04; M.A., '14.  
1923, *Principal*, Galesburg High School; Galesburg, Illinois.

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- 1922 EUGENE YOUNGERT, A.B., '20.  
1922, *Principal*, Rock Island High School; Rock Island, Illinois.
- 1921 W. J. YOURD, B.A., '10.  
1917, *Principal*, High School; 602 Fourth Avenue, Clinton,  
Iowa.
- 1924 GEO. J. ZEIGLER.  
St. John, Kansas.
- 1923 J. W. ZENTMYER, B.S., '14; B.A., '19.  
1923, *Superintendent of Schools*, Everest Public Schools; Everest,  
Kansas.
- 1923 F. W. ZIESE, A.B., '13.  
1921, *Principal*, Bethany Township High School; Bethany,  
Illinois.
- 1924 D. E. ZOOK, M.A., '23.  
1923, *Principal*, Nokomis Township High School, Nokomis,  
Illinois.



## EIGHTH ANNUAL MEETING OF THE ASSOCIATION

The eighth annual meeting of the National Association of Secondary-School Principals was held in Chicago, Illinois, Monday, Tuesday, Wednesday, and Thursday, February 25, 26, 27 and 28, 1924.

### FIRST SESSION

The first session of the eighth annual meeting of the National Association of Secondary-School Principals was called to order at 2:15 p. m. in the Ball Room of Hotel LaSalle by the retiring President, Principal Edward Ryncarson, of Fifth Avenue High School, Pittsburgh, Pennsylvania. Mr. Ryncarson introduced the incumbent President, Principal Claude P. Briggs, of Lakewood High School, Lakewood, Ohio, who read his address, entitled, *The Holding Power of the High School*.

### THE PRESIDENT'S ADDRESS

#### THE HOLDING POWER OF THE HIGH SCHOOL

CLAUDE P. BRIGGS,  
PRINCIPAL OF LAKEWOOD HIGH SCHOOL, LAKEWOOD, OHIO

In the Ordinance of 1787, which provided for the organization and government of the Northwest territory, our forefathers wrote these significant words: "Religion, morality, and knowledge being necessary to good government and the happiness of mankind, schools and the means of education shall forever be encouraged."

The idea and ideals back of this statement have brought the opportunity for an education to the threshold of every home in our land. The fact that almost one in three of the children reaching their teens in the United States *enters* the high school is worth remembering. Nothing like it has ever occurred before in the world's history. This marvelous growth of the high-school population had its inception about three decades ago, for in 1890 not more than one in ten of the pupils of high-school age in this country were in high school

This most unusual growth is all the more significant when considered in light of the growth of the elementary grades during the same period. In consulting the Bureau of Education reports, we find that the enrollment of the grades in 1890 from one through eight was thirteen million, while the enrollment of the same grades in 1922 was approximately twenty-two million—an increase of a little more than seventy per cent. This growth in comparison with the growth of the total population of the United States is but little more than the increase of the total population.

Considering the enrollment of the public secondary-schools for the same time, 1890, there were about two hundred and fifty thousand, while the enrollment in 1922 is approximately two million, five hundred thousand—an increase of about one thousand per cent. These figures are little short of marvelous.

Further consideration of the statistics shows, according to Dr. Thorndike, that about thirty-six per cent of this number, or nine hundred thousand, may be approximately set as the number entering the first year of the high schools annually. He also says, "While we lack measures of the inborn capacities of the one in ten or eleven of a generation ago, and have only scanty measures of the capacities of the one in three today, I think we have excellent reasons for believing that the one in ten of three decades ago had greater capacities for intellectual tasks generally than the one in three of today."

The high school of a generation ago was thought of as was the academy—little more than a preparatory school for the professions and the colleges.

What are some of the causes for this unusual growth in what has been termed "the people's college"? It is due, first, largely to the belief that our people hold; namely, that the cause of democracy is dependent on education, and the belief that this government of the people, for the people, and by the people must see that its children have clear ideas and ideals of the nature, history, and principles of democratic government; and unless they do, our representative form of government will prove a failure. The better and more complete our education of all the people, the safer and saner will be the direction of our nation.

This abiding faith in education and its relation to our government has led the states to pass laws compelling all children of cer-

tain ages to go to school. In some states the upper limit has been increased to sixteen years of age and even to eighteen, if the child is unemployed.

Another and a very vital reason for this rapid increase in enrollment is due to the enrichment of the curriculum. School children unsuited in mental capacity for intellectual tasks solely, could not be compelled to stay in school unless subject matter suited to their capacities was offered them. Vocational training subject matter has played a very important part in holding pupils in the high school.

Last, but not least, the junior-high-school plan, in an endeavor to offer exploratory courses and a reasonable amount of freedom in selection, has had a helpful influence in bringing to the people the value of having their children continue with their high-school education.

Let us suppose that the average cost of a pupil's education in 1912 were \$38.27; then the average cost of the pupil's education in 1922 is \$110.99. We arrive at this conclusion because the index of the purchasing power of the dollar, derived by experts of the United States Government departments of Labor and Commerce, shows that it took \$2.90 last year to do the business of \$1.00 in 1912. But when we think that the enrollment of secondary-schools has increased at an unparalleled rate; when we add to this increase in the growth the added expense, and then consider the decline in the purchasing power of the dollar, it is no wonder that the tax-paying public is asking administrators to justify our education even to the point of requesting them to dispense with some of the vantage ground. Already there are powerful influences at work crying, "Hold, hold! the nation is going bankrupt unless the idea is dispensed with of trying to train and educate all the children of all the people at the cost of the tax-paying public."

There are those who would eliminate all from the schools except that which is an intellectual agency in the education of the high-school pupils. They say that the high school is primarily an intellectual agent and that such subjects as those that do not come within the range of intellectual tasks must be eliminated. They would keep **only** the languages, elementary processes of arithmetic, social sciences, and a minimum exposure to the processes and results of science. They are enemies to the tendency of the enrichment of the

curriculum and would take away from our cosmopolitan high school the opportunity for the pupils to study art, something of science, something of literature, something of economics, and something of every form of knowledge in which the modern world interests itself. This is a definite attempt on the part of our enemies to stifle the modern movement in our high schools, and to limit it to the formal type of education given in the academies and public high schools of a generation ago.

These opponents of the present movement in education propose to cut down the cost by removing from the curriculum all subjects added for the definite purpose of strengthening its holding power. Are the thinking people going to stand by and see this done? It is the belief of modern educators that they will not. On the other hand, it will not be surprising to see them add to the opportunity for training already offered in the high school.

The proponents of the modern high school with its enriched curriculum believe too in a thorough study of a few things coupled with the intellectual vigor and training which the mind of the pupil receives in this process, but he does not believe that a child will become educated by teaching him something about every form of knowledge and skill. He believes in the theory of individual differences and does not believe that every pupil is going to get his education and training along the same lines and on the same subject matter as every other child, any more than he believes that every boy must be compelled to run and train for the one hundred yard dash to become an athlete.

The challenge has come to all who are interested in secondary-school work. More and more must we justify our procedure to the tax-paying public. Do you ever hear about eliminating the "frills" in education? What are the frills? Try asking different people what they call the "frills." You will find about as many answers as there are people. That which is a "frill" and of little or no value or means as an educational agency to one will very likely prove the very essence of the curriculum to another. The study of art to one is a mere waste of time, while to a pupil who expects to become an interior decorator it proves to be the meat of the curriculum. As a result of this investigation the conclusion will be reached that there are no "frills."

Is there need of increasing the holding power of the high school? Whose child is to be eliminated or denied that training which will make him a better citizen and better able to support himself? Dr. W. O. Thompson, President of the Ohio State University, in a recent address said, "Public education is for the millions—not for the millionaires alone. Every child has a right to an education for the potentialities that lie within him." In the light of this pronouncement, certainly we must add to the opportunities of those who are of limited capacity so that they may have their training. You ask, "Will not this training help to eliminate the exploitation of the workers at the lower levels?" This training will tend to standardize occupation and give it prestige; this training will often result in a living wage and it is often a means of eliminating a social hazard. The unskilled worker is usually the first one to be discharged when work is slack. If this philosophy is sound, in time there will be an increase in the number of occupations for which training is offered.

W. M. Proctor in his study of the California high-school situation is the authority for the statement that one-third to one-half of the pupils who enter the high school the first year do not return for the third semester. A principal of a large high school in one of the middle-west cities reports, in a study which he made recently, that the "drop outs" (that is, those who entered the first year and did not return the first semester of the second year) number forty-six per cent of those who entered. This study covered a period of ten years. These figures startle us, but there will be still other "drop outs" before this first-year class has completed its four-year course, and the final figures will show a worse picture.

Why did these pupils drop out? Was it on account of economic conditions or was it on account of inability to succeed? Probably the latter in a large percentage of cases. In a study which has recently been made on the "drop outs" it has been clearly shown by evidence secured from them, that they would have remained in school could they have been shown that they would ultimately gain anything by staying in school.

May we ask if there is not a need for training for occupations in the lower vocational levels? We must say, "Yes," if Dr. Thompson is right in assuming that every child has a right to an education for the potentialities that lie within him. We say again, certainly



the tax-payer will not be so short-sighted as not to finance the schools for this purpose.

It is a well-known fact that the more time and money spent on the guidance of a pupil before he reaches the age of eighteen, the less cost will result to society later for correction and inefficiency. This will be particularly true of children of the lower levels.

Some of these pupils leave high school because of poor teaching. There is need of improvement in teaching; more study put upon the subject matter in the light of the boys and girls to be taught. This forty-six per cent of the first-year boys and girls who do not return, do not really quit to get out of school to work but because they cannot work in school. Some one has quoted one of these "drop outs" on his explanation of his situation as follows: "When a fellow goes to high school, at the end of every six weeks he gets pieces of paper with the teachers' marks on them telling how he ain't no good—when a fellow works at a job, he gets a slip of paper every Saturday noon with which he can buy things. Who wants to go to school anyhow if he ain't going to college?" Clearly the bars have been raised too high in our modern high school to make it possible to give proper training to the limited pupils.

In a recent study made in the Berkeley (California) High School it is the report that twenty-six per cent of the pupils coming into the tenth grade were below the average in brightness; that is, they had an intelligence quotient of less than ninety-five. The study reports further, after an investigation of the junior high-school enrollment, that the senior high school may continue to expect an equally large per cent of pupils of limited intelligence in the future.

A recent study in another high school shows that nearly fifty per cent of the "drop outs" were below the one hundred I. Q. Thirty-five per cent were decidedly below the average intelligence.

From these studies we cannot conclude that low learning rate is the only cause for "drop outs"; however, it proves to be one of the important reasons.

There are means at the command of secondary-schools which, if made use of, will bring the character and nature of the work down to those of the lower levels of intelligence without lowering the standards of the gifted. For those of the lower and middle levels of intelligence, new lines of work of a more practical nature will have



to be added, and since there are probably ten per cent who have not even the ability to complete the work preparatory to high school, the differentiation of classes will have to begin in the sixth and seventh grades. In order that this modification of curriculum may meet better the needs of these lower levels, there must be classification of students by grouping the student body on the basis of group intelligence plus achievement tests and teachers' estimates. We shall not then be put in the anomalous situation of expecting a pupil of inferior or even average ability to do superior work; and, on the other hand, allowing a pupil of superior ability to do less than superior work. Each pupil should perform according to his capacity. If the work exacted of the pupils were based on their ability to meet these requirements, then there would be fewer "drop outs."

In Lakewood High School, numbering two thousand pupils, there are two hundred and sixty-one who are fifteen points or more below the norm for their ages in accordance with the Otis Intelligence Test given in September, 1923. This is a fraction over thirteen per cent. Furthermore, among the four hundred and twenty-eight graduates for the past two years, there were only twelve, or two and eight-tenths per cent, who were fifteen or more points below the norm for their ages. In this same study we found that the indices of brightness for the graduating classes of January and June, 1922, was 130; the I. B. for January, 1923, was 130; for June, 1923, the I. B. was 127; and January, 1924, it was 123.3. These figures give us a better idea of what is going on in the way of elimination in a cosmopolitan high school in a high-grade community than could possibly have been without the testing and classification.

Lakewood junior high schools as well as its senior high school are endeavoring to meet the "drop-out" problem by the homogeneous grouping of classes. At present in the senior high school we have 223 unclassified classes and 189 classified. We call them the A. B. C. groups; those of slow learning rate are designated as A groups, of which we have 42; those of superior learning rate are C groups, numbering 38; the middle groups called B's, numbering 109, are those of average learning rate. They are what is left after the A and C groups are taken out. This work has been in operation for the past two years. The surprising thing about this grouping in our school is how generally the teachers have come to approve of the plan. However, just the grouping is the smallest part of the pro-

cedure. We use it as a means of stimulation as well as a means of guidance. Dr. Thorndike says that in general, a pupil whose first trial Alpha ability is below 100 will be unable to understand the symbolisms, generalizations, and proofs of algebra. He may pass the course but he will not really have learned algebra. Pupils excluded may be given a course in mathematics that is within their capacity or take it in the second or third years."

There is not much gained by classification if the curriculum is not modified to meet the needs of these special groups. The teacher of English of the slow groups says that the subject matter must be closely related to the life situations of each, i.e., it must be very concrete. The teacher of mathematics says that the subject matter of these groups is made as objective and concrete as possible and is linked up with the past experience of the pupil as far as can be. Only the short and plain problems and exercises are used. The work leans toward a review of arithmetic rather than toward the abstract ideas of formal algebra.

When a school has analysed its pupil body as has been done in our school, I am sure the conclusion will be reached that the program of work assigned to each pupil should be determined by the ability of that pupil to carry on that program. If there is a carefully arranged plan which considers individual differences, the pupils of average intelligence will, in larger numbers, continue their education rather than, through discouragement brought about by wrong expectations, leave school and go into their life work unprepared.

As a result of testing and classification our school has learned something about the technique of dealing with not only those pupils of superior capacity, but with pupils of probable slow learning capacity as well. There must be not only a differentiation of subject matter and curriculum but the methods of teaching must be adapted to these limited groups in particular. Inasmuch as only a limited amount of academic work can be acquired by the slow learning groups, it is necessary that the subject matter in English be related to life experiences. What are the operations and the skills which they must perform? They are not interested in grammar, punctuation, or sentence analysis *per se*, and for that reason their work should be confined largely to reading for appreciation and self-expression in its simplest form. We should set for these a daily assignment that is distinct and plain and never allow it to become involved. The

teacher who does not confine his assignment to short one-page themes rather than three-thousand-word themes involving many references to be looked up from many sources is doomed to certain failure with these pupils.

The pupils of superior learning rate may be expected to look for ultimate principles and final objectives but the children of the lower levels will seldom seek beyond the immediate and for this reason the subject matter should be concrete. It is always well to remember that the *mental* age of the slow learner is not what his chronological age is. This should be remembered in making the academic assignments. The mental age should be given first consideration. In the light of the above considerations, large opportunity should be given for drill. The slow thinker is not necessarily the accurate thinker nor has he an unusually retentive mind. We do not expect him to work out a project by himself. The pupils of the A groups must have teachers of broad sympathy and great patience. These teachers must not only be very patient and sympathetic but they must also be keenly alert to the fact that they are training young men and young women of eighteen years chronologically but who have the mental age, oftentimes, of fourteen years or less, especially when they are dealing with them in cases of discipline.

Our teachers are coming to know that even the limited pupil has some ability and it is their privilege to co-operate with him in developing the ability which he has. It is a significant fact that we have a higher percentage of failures in our non-segregated groups than we have in the classified groups. Failures in Latin for last semester showed higher percentage of failures in the non-segregated groups than in the classified and there were also more failures in the classified C group than in the A or B groups. In mathematics there was a higher percentage of failures in the B group, out of which all the A's and C's have been withdrawn. This shows to us that our curriculum and teaching method must be better suited to the individuals of these groups if we are to prevent "drop-outs."

Is this procedure undemocratic? No, quite the contrary. This is very important. The slow learner thinks, but he does not enjoy or profit from studies or subject matter handled in such manner that it is above his mental level. Such differentiation of classes, methods of teaching, and enlargement of opportunities for the train-

ing of the humbler sort is the necessary corollary of the purely democratic ideal. In proportion to the extent of our being able to train and educate not only the superior pupils, but those of lower intelligence, will we be able to increase the holding power of this greatest of all educational institutions, the "Secondary School."

The discussion of *Curriculum Making from the High-School Principal's Standpoint* was opened by Dr. Franklin K. Bobbitt of the Department of Education of the University of Chicago, who read his paper, *Functions of the High-School Principal in Curriculum-Making*.

## FUNCTIONS OF THE HIGH-SCHOOL PRINCIPAL IN CURRICULUM-MAKING

BY FRANKLIN BOBBITT, THE UNIVERSITY OF CHICAGO

For many years now, we have been hearing about *The Reorganization of Secondary Education*. The process is under way. Actual reorganization is being accomplished. But it is not rapid. And it has not proceeded far. It has not yet agreed upon a revised theory. Reorganization of our practices must wait on the reorganization of our theory. The many small but widely-heralded rearrangements of things, as for example, the general mathematics or world history, are but rearrangements of subject-matter. They are not genuine reorganizations of the *education* of adolescents.

Not many years ago secondary education was looked upon as the simple process of mastering sixteen units of subject-matter. Education was only information-getting; information-storage. For all students, whatever their capacity and social destiny, an equal storage of sixteen units was for each and all an appropriate and approved education.

These sixteen units were largely alien things which did not function at the time in the lives of the students nor in those of the men and women whom they later became. The educational process is fairly described as one of grafting relatively alien things upon the mind under circumstances not favorable to the growth of the grafted matters. Of course, in spite of this, some of the graftings grew; but probably most of them lacked vitality and remained relatively inert or even died away. The pupils, of course, greatly profited from



their high-school career, since they lived for four years within a healthy civilized social atmosphere. Let the sixteen units of grafted subject-matter mostly die away, the effects of living four plastic years in an atmosphere provided by high-minded individuals in itself constituted an education of inestimable value. The great benefits came from the *living*, the genuine living, of the pupils, in a good social environment, rather than from the relatively alien functionless matters which we were at so much pains to graft onto their minds, and in which our degree of failure as shown by their after-school history has been so conspicuous.

That period of academic irresponsibility, however, is drawing to a close. We are changing our definition of education. No longer is it regarded as merely the mastery of subject-matter—almost any kind of subject-matter—anything the pupils chose from whim or ignorance. We are coming to see education as the process of developing in men and women the *abilities* which should function in the conduct of their daily lives. Power to live depends not so much upon stored text-book information, as upon sense of responsibility, power of initiative, resourcefulness, industry, doggedness, power of self-direction, social conscience, habits, skills, valuations, attitudes of mind, tastes, wants, ambitions, appreciations, interests, width of vision, powers of judgment, the basic quality of the personality, public spirit, large-group loyalties, sense of justice, hatred of pettiness, hatred of weakness, hatred of falsity, of error, of parasitism, of sentimentality, of greed.

These are not text-book matters. But they are the fundamental factors in *live* human abilities. They are the major things to be created by education. They are not things to be grafted on but rather to be called into being by normal exercise of potential powers.

In *live* abilities, naturally information is an ingredient. It is one of several guides to action. But it must be *live* information which has grown out of experience and which has grown up with the other things with which it is to operate. It must be amalgamated with them, through having grown with them. It can not be of the embalmed or cold storage type of information. Not text-book type.

In the education that lies ahead of us, we are going to aim as consciously and carefully at the development of a *sense of responsibility*, as at information; far more than at the text-book type of information. We shall aim at a sense of responsibility, not in the

abstract, but specifically in the various actual and practical affairs of life. We are going to discover a reliable technique for developing sense of responsibility.

In our reorganization of education we are going to be as much concerned with developing *fibre of the personality*, perseverance, doggedness, strength, endurance—in work and in play—as now with information. We have the problem of finding a reliable technique for developing these qualities.

In the same way, we are going to look specifically and carefully at each of the non-informational ingredients of human abilities, and aim at them as fundamental objectives of education. We are going to find a technique for achieving them.

In the main this means a new set of objectives, different from those that we have hitherto employed. Even the informational objectives must be fundamentally altered.

When we look at professional responsibilities from this point of view, we begin to see how little genuine education is accomplished by the usual type of cold-storage subjects. We see what a lot of reorganizing we have before us. Few of us yet realize the far-reaching character of the changes that have as yet only begun.

The first step in curriculum-making is *activity-analysis*. This is to discover in specific detail all of the activities which right-thinking and right-living men and women actually perform; for example, their health activities, citizenship activities, language activities, leisure occupations, vocational labors, parental responsibilities, and religious activities.

The second step is to discover the *abilities* and *personal qualities* which are necessary for right and consistent performance of the activities. These abilities are the educational objectives.

The third step is then to discover what living active experiences will enable the child and youth to develop those abilities. To, list these experiences in proper sequence is to formulate the curriculum.

In reorganized education, most of the experiences must be those of normal living. Conscious information, mastery for permanent storage, is only rarely an ingredient of normal living; and will therefore only occasionally be an ingredient of the curriculum. In other words, the curriculum-maker cannot be primarily concerned with school subjects.



Curriculum-making for reorganized education must therefore be led and directed by some one who is not primarily interested in high-school subjects or departments; but in *education*.

The leader in the work must be some one who sees education as developing the powers of the man to do, to act, and to live; one who has a broad vision over human life and affairs; one who has a clear vision of the wide range of personal qualities and abilities that function in the well-trained man; one who can unconfusedly see education in its wholeness as the development of these abilities; one who is not a specialist in some partial aspect of education; one who has no special subject-matter axe to grind. This man is the high-school principal.

In the reorganization of secondary education, the initiative can not be left to the teachers and department heads with their college advisers:

1. They are submerged in the subject-storage conception of education. They know nothing else. They can conceive of nothing else.

2. They are specialists in subject-matter, not specialists in human life.

3. They are specialists in subjects, but not in the process of unfolding the potential abilities of children into the functioning abilities of *adulthood*.

4. Education as they have witnessed it has been of the subject-storage type.

5. The colleges where they specialized have set them the subject-storage example.

6. Practically all of educational literature, until recently, has presented this conception.

7. It is embodied in our text-books, plans of school organization, graduation standards, and college entrance requirements.

8. Several hundred standard tests are built upon this conception.

9. Teachers lack time and energy to think and study the problems.

Proof that the initiative cannot be left to departmental teachers is to be found in the reports of the various "Committees on the Reorganization of Secondary Education." These reports have been

invariably disappointing. Rarely is there any evidence that the committee has actually achieved the functional point of view. In the main their educational preconceptions are of the usual subject-storage type. They would rearrange the subject-matter, thinking that that is reorganization of education. But let them merely rearrange until the subject is unrecognizable, if they lack the functional point of view, they do not really get at the heart of the matter.

Reorganization cannot be left to the teachers. There must be some genuine educational engineering and generalship. For this, the superintendent of schools bears a burden of responsibility which he seems often little to realize. But we are not here concerned with him. Our concern is with the principal. Within the high school it is he who should vigorously and aggressively take the lead, direct the engineering, provide the generalship.

Too frequently, however, he presents an alibi. He has not the time. He is the director of routine. He has not the needed special preparation. He has not the inclination. It is not the fashion. Department heads would resent it. Colleges would resent his injecting genuine education into high schools. It is not sanctioned by the traditions. Commonsense in education is taboo. Books on high-school administration tell him that he must leave these matters to heads of departments; that he is incompetent to deal with them; and that incompetence relieves him of responsibility. And finally he takes the position that, as Director of Routine, he is the only individual in whom either teachers, pupils, or parents can be brought to have sufficient confidence.

The high-school principal holds two offices; and, obviously fills *one* of them. In his lower office, he should be called the "Director of Routine." This is the one that he knows all about; and he discharges his functions with vigor and efficiency. In his higher office, he should be called the "Director of Secondary Education." This office he visits all too rarely. Too much of the time his alibi is hung on the door, and dust is gathering on the furniture.

As Director of Secondary Education, what should the principal do?

1. He should keep his eyes and his mind open to study the educational needs of the world round about him. He should not take his educational thought second-hand.

2. He should pass his vision of educational needs on to his teachers.

3. He should stimulate them—compel them—to study the educational needs of the world round about them.

4. He should set them to discovering the activities of right-living men and women; to discovering the abilities and personal qualities that lie back of these activities. Thus he has them discover for themselves the objectives of education. It will be done at first in a halting imperfect manner. But it is only from experience that they can acquire skill.

5. He will provide the leadership in the determination of objectives; the vision; but he will not do the work.

6. He will have his teachers take the objectives and discover the pupil activities and experiences best for attaining them. Here again they will do much stumbling; but there is no other way to learn to walk.

7. He will provide *leadership* in this formulation of the details of the curriculum in each department. He will assist in working out the general policies and plans. But he will not do the detailed work. He will require teachers to take the initiative in formulating curriculum details for their several departments. But he will co-operate and advise and oversee. He will keep ever before them the larger educational vision, in terms of which they are to work out their special portions of the field. He will pass upon the details as they initiate them, showing the teachers how they build out, or fail to build out, the general educational plans. He bears the responsibility for approval or disapproval of the teachers' suggestions. Thus he will get things done by specialists; and yet perform his generalizing co-ordinating function.

8. He will keep in touch with and check up the curriculum labors of each department. He will require each department to justify each detail that it proposes. What can not be justified, he will have modified or eliminated.

9. He will always hold to that general common-sense point of view which is necessary for neutralizing the special obsessions of the departmental specialists.

10. And finally, he will see that *somebody else* is employed to

perform most of the duties, under his direction, of the Director of Routine.

The President at this time named the members of the committees required by the constitution, as follows:

#### COMMITTEE ON NOMINATIONS

PRINCIPAL P. C. BUNN, *Chairman*, High School, Lorain, Ohio.

PRINCIPAL F. T. DU FRAIN, High School, Pontiac, Michigan.

PRINCIPAL LIDA M. EBBERT, High School, Linden, New Jersey.

PRINCIPAL FRANK L. GROVE, High School, Mobile, Alabama.

PRINCIPAL MERLE PRUNTY, Central High School, Tulsa, Oklahoma.

PRINCIPAL CLARENCE T. RICE, High School, Kansas City, Kansas.

PRINCIPAL CHARLES S. TILLINGHAST, Horace Mann School for Boys, New York City.

PRINCIPAL LUCY L. W. WILSON, South Philadelphia High School for Girls, Philadelphia, Pennsylvania.

PRINCIPAL HOMER SHEPARD, High School, Lincoln, Nebraska.

PRINCIPAL ARMAND R. MILLER, McKinley High School, St. Louis, Missouri.

PRINCIPAL WILLIAM A. WETZEL, Senior High School, Trenton, New Jersey.

#### COMMITTEE ON NECROLOGY

PRINCIPAL H. V. KEPNER, *Chairman*, West Side High School, Denver, Colorado.

PRINCIPAL JOHN RUFI, L. L. Wright High School, Ironwood, Michigan.

PRINCIPAL A. B. O'NEAL, High School, Oshkosh, Wisconsin.

PRINCIPAL WILLIAM WIENER, Central Commercial and Manual Training High School, Newark, New Jersey.

PRINCIPAL E. H. KEMPER McCOMB, Enmerich Manual Training High School, Indianapolis, Indiana.

#### COMMITTEE ON RESOLUTIONS

PRINCIPAL T. J. McCORMACK, LaSalle-Peru Township High School, LaSalle, Illinois.

PRINCIPAL RICHARD T. HARGREAVES, Central High School, Minneapolis, Minnesota.

PRINCIPAL JOSEPH S. McCOWAN, High School, South Bend, Indiana.

PRINCIPAL EDWARD RYNEARSON, Fifth Avenue High School, Pittsburgh, Pennsylvania.

MR. JOSIAH W. TAYLOR, State House, Augusta, Maine.

PRINCIPAL M. H. WILLING, Lincoln School, Teachers' College, New York City.

PRINCIPAL GEORGE E. MARSHALL, High School, Davenport, Iowa.

### AUDITING COMMITTEE

PRINCIPAL J. G. MASTERS, *Chairman*, Central High School, Omaha, Nebraska.

PRINCIPAL L. W. BROOKS, High School, Wichita, Kansas.

PRINCIPAL F. C. MITCHELL, Classical High School, Lynn, Massachusetts.

The discussion was continued by E. E. Morley, Principal of West High School, Akron, Ohio, who read his paper, entitled, *Purposeful Activities in Akron High Schools*.

### PURPOSEFUL ACTIVITIES IN AKRON HIGH SCHOOLS

E. E. MORLEY, PRINCIPAL OF WEST HIGH SCHOOL, AKRON, OHIO

Both school authorities and thinking laymen have long agreed that the fundamental weakness of traditional school procedure is its emphasis on knowledge-getting and its neglect of applying and using knowledge. Pupils who are thus trained often lack the initiative and self-confidence necessary to meet life situations successfully. In fact, it has frequently happened under such training that pupils who have failed in school often achieve greater success in life than those who have won high scholastic distinction.

While it is true no doubt that our high schools still retain some teachers who hold the traditional attitude, yet there is increasing evidence that greater stress is constantly being placed upon *performance* and *expression*. Indeed, schools of education and summer sessions for teachers are now rapidly overcoming the effects of the old theory that thorough academic education is sufficient preparation for a teacher.

I hold no brief against that teacher or parent who demands the highest achievement possible in scholarship for his children. In fact,



I am ready to concede any such teacher or parent unfit for his responsibility who is satisfied with less than the best. However, I do not believe that a teacher's obligation ends here. The demands of the work-a-day world into which all our school boys and girls eventually plunge require some aptitude in the use and application of knowledge. That aptitude moreover, must be fostered and developed in the solution of *actual problems and situations* arising in school. To enable pupils to discover such situations and problems therefore, and to guide and direct them in their solution is the essence of purposive teaching and learning.

The influence of hard-headed business methods upon education has forced many of us to abandon the lame theory, so long in vogue, that learning facts in foreign languages or mathematics or science for example will somehow "train the mind" to cope with all problems. By the simple process of opening our minds to the common sense requirements of successful living, we have come to recognize finally other objectives than merely vague mind-training. We train minds now, but we do it by requiring actual performance of tasks requiring the use of experience and knowledge. To develop initiative, we require pupils to discover and carry through to completion tasks which favorably affect their own welfare. To secure a sense of responsibility among pupils, we share with them some of the obligations in class and school administration. To assure a sense of co-operation, we set pupils to work in groups and committees at such problems and tasks as require the use of the various degrees and types of ability represented in the group. Thus we develop all the various qualities of good citizenship for which we are held accountable, not as heretofore, by teaching *about* them, but by requiring actual participation in activities involving them.

In this respect all our school procedure has been profoundly affected by methods used in athletic and vocational training. The mile runner, for example, does not train for his event by practising the hundred yard dash, nor does the mechanic learn his trade by reading books alone.

Undoubtedly, the best educational returns accompany those school activities which are performed under the drive of a dominant purpose which is fully comprehended and approved by the pupils. I should like to present for your consideration, therefore, a number of specific examples of such activities which have been carried on in



the high schools of Akron and particularly in West High School, during the past three years.

Of the strictly curriculum activities, I want to speak of the following:

1. *A project in Industrial History.*—During the fall semester of this year, students in the industrial history classes of Central High School have collected material from manufacturers, from old residents, from court house files and from legislative records, for a history of industry in Akron. This material is now being organized and prepared for the printing classes to publish in book form. When finished, it will serve as a textbook in the Akron Schools.

2. In the same school, a textbook in printing has been set up and printed by the students as a part of their regular class work.

3. In West High School, students of the News English classes prepare each year, a handbook of information which is sold to upper classmen and distributed free to all incoming freshmen. In the "Foreword" of this book is an explanation of its purpose. "The 'W' book is an effort, not only to acquaint each member of the school with the range of its social and academic activities and opportunities, but also to set forth the ideals and traditions which go toward building up a finer and firmer spirit at West." The fact that nearly every one of our fifteen hundred students possesses one of these books is a sufficient testimony of the usefulness it serves.

4. The school paper and the annual. All five high schools now publish their own newspapers which are printed twice monthly. West High School also puts out an elaborate annual. Pupils in the English classes undergo hard training in fundamentals in order to qualify for staff positions on these publications.

5. *Reference projects in Science and History.*—Assignments in certain of the science and history classes are made flexible by including in addition to the general assignment for which the entire class is responsible, special references on related topics for the brighter pupils. Such references are read, summarized in standard form on library cards and presented in class. The cards are then filed under an alphabetical index in a small cabinet where they are readily available for quick reviews and for the use of future classes. Our students take commendable pride in performing these tasks because they are doing a service for others and because they have the

satisfaction of knowing that they are leaving something of value to their school.

6. *Social Science Projects.*—For the past three years, several lines of interesting work involving student participation in school responsibilities have been carried on in the social science department of West High School. This department includes about six hundred students with five teachers and a head. The courses offered are in community civics, social problems, ancient, medieval and modern history, economics, government, industrial and American history. These courses are all required in the history curriculum but are elective in the others.

All pupils in social science courses are encouraged to perform some sort of project or committee work. The school and the community furnish the laboratory for their investigation and study. Pupils select from a list of activities the particular fields in which they wish to work. Those selecting the same lines are organized into committees, under the leadership of a chairman who is held responsible for results. From time to time, chairmen are called in for conferences with teachers and a final report is prepared, given orally to the classes interested and filed for future use.

Time will permit only brief mention of just a few of these activities.

*Senior Leaders on Freshmen Trips.*—To quote the words of the department head, "The committee of senior leaders act as guides in conducting small groups of ninth grade pupils in community civics on weekly trips to factories and other institutions. All civics pupils who present the written consent of their parents may join these groups. They make oral reports to their classes of manufacturing processes, occupations, vocational opportunities, and management. Each six weeks, they make written reports to their leaders who grade them and turn them over to the teachers. The best reports are classified and filed for future reference.

Leaders must call up and make arrangements for the visits, explain processes, point out interesting details, keep an account of attendance and be responsible for the behavior of their charges. To date, these leaders have been so carefully chosen and trained for their work that no serious criticisms have come from the places visited."

*Student Advisers.*—From the senior pupils in the social science classes, six of the highest type boys and girls are selected to act as

advisers to lower classmen. They interview pupils who are not happy in their school life because of timidity, discouragement, unfavorable home conditions, over-sensitiveness, lack of moral standards or any other factor that might hamper them in their school life. The adviser must combine versatility and tact with leadership and loyalty. No pupil is ever put into this position of responsibility unless he has proven himself absolutely reliable. As an example of the kind of pupil selected for such work I might mention the case of "C." "C" is a senior, fullback on the varsity squad, holder of second place in the discus event of the city meet, prominent member and officer of the Hi-Y club—above average in scholarship, modest, sincere, versatile—a good salesman and all-round student. To such an adviser, young pupils open up and tell details in confidence which few teachers could elicit. With the co-operation of the dean of girls, the home visitor and teachers, many knotty problems of home conditions, relationships between students, and class-room difficulties have been untangled. Of the cases successfully handled by student advisers, there is the girl who was too free with cosmetics; the orphan girl who was left with the care of a family of younger children; the boy who had lost interest because of lack of sympathy at home and failure of his teachers to understand him; the obstinate boy who could not adjust himself to school regulations; the user of profanity and vulgarity, and many others. Such problems are very often solved entirely without faculty intervention.

*The Student Tutors.*—Perhaps the most important and far-reaching work undertaken by the social science department is that of the student tutors. About forty boys and girls were engaged in this work during the past semester. Failing pupils in freshmen and sophomore classes are reported to the head of the department who assigns each one to a student tutor to be coached during free periods from three to five hours per week. At any hour of the school day, at lunch periods and after school, these tutors may be seen sitting with their charges in the upper corridors, in the cafeteria and in vacant rooms carrying on the serious business of saving pupils from failure. It is only rarely that tutors do not make good. When they fail, the cause is most often poor judgment in selecting them in the first place. The typical school failure responds favorably to this treatment in from three to six weeks and is discharged. Out of one hundred and twenty-five cases referred to tutors during the past term, over eighty per cent passed in their studies.

Both parents and teachers enthusiastically endorse this work. The pupils themselves who helped gave a banquet to their tutors at the close of the semester in appreciation of the service they had received.

*The School Thrift Program.*—In order to establish a specific common interest among all curriculum and extra-curriculum activities of the school a general program of thrift instruction was adopted by the faculty last fall. A survey of the local situation revealed these facts:

1. That the school thrift program has been generally successful in the elementary schools.
2. That boys and girls as a rule lose interest in saving as soon as they enter high school.
3. That the reason for this loss of interest is that school banking seems trivial and beneath the dignity of high-school pupils.
4. That parents seem to resent this condition and attribute it to the neglect of the high school to give proper attention to thrift teaching.
5. That patrons and business men alike are ready to support the high schools in a constructive program of thrift instruction, believing that thrift is fundamental to the economic stability of the community.

With these facts before them, a faculty thrift committee set about to evolve a plan which would remedy such conditions. They based their recommendations on the following theses:

1. The best thrift teaching is accomplished by inducing pupils to practice regular saving and depositing money for a specific purpose.
2. Thrift habits must be maintained throughout the high-school period in order to function permanently.
3. The grade school plan of operating a savings system will not work with high-school pupils.

Under the committee's direction, West High School has operated its school savings plan since October 8, 1923. The plan includes such departures from the grade school method as:

1. Regular bank cages erected by the manual training students, where pupils make out deposit slips and hand their money through cash windows to student tellers.



2. Banking hours at stated times every day of the week.
3. Savings clubs whose members deposit specific amounts weekly for Christmas, graduation, vacation, and college expenses.
4. Weekly banking statements prepared by the officers and distributed to all rooms.
5. Comparative standings of the school departments published weekly in order to arouse competition for honors among those taking different courses.
6. Wide publicity in local papers and thrift publications to maintain interest in the project.
7. Contests in letter-writing, poster-making, and slogans.
8. Thrift letters sent to the homes of parents to secure their co-operation. These letters are prepared by pupils in English classes, the best ones being selected by the faculty thrift committee. They are then mimeographed and addressed by pupils in the stenography classes.

Before our school bank opened for business, West High School pupils deposited at the rate of less than three per cent per week. The total amount of money saved never ran over fifteen dollars. So far this school year we have averaged over twenty per cent and our weekly deposits have averaged above two hundred dollars. The last two statements show 27 per cent and 33 per cent, respectively, and with few exceptions, each week has shown a consistent increase over the preceding week. Although the city is now experiencing a slight depression in business, the school bank enjoys a decidedly prosperous condition and a hopeful outlook.

I have enumerated briefly some of the activities in which the Akron high schools are engaged where pupils act under the drive of clearly discernible purposes. I have seen some of these activities fail because of lack of foresight and mismanagement and others succeed because of deliberate, careful planning and enthusiastic support. As a result of such experiences, the policy of West High School will be to increase and extend the scope of its purposeful activities to include in time all the lines of work undertaken in the school.

The discussion was concluded by Dr. L. A. Pechstein, Dean of College of Education, The University of Cincinnati, Cincinnati, Ohio, who read a paper, entitled, *Curricula-Making for Pupils of Varying Ability*.

CURRICULA-MAKING FOR PUPILS OF VARYING  
ABILITYDR. L. A. PECHSTEIN, DEAN OF COLLEGE OF EDUCATION, THE  
UNIVERSITY OF CINCINNATI, CINCINNATI, OHIO

What do the scientists of education in general, and the high-school men in particular, know about the field suggested by the title of this paper? Consider it divided into halves, (1) Curricula-making and, (2) Pupils of Varying Abilities. Much is known and the facts with increasing willingness acknowledged about the latter; little is known and *laissez-faire* complacency, still too often expressed, about the former.

The healthy difficulties the American high school is now facing go back with fair accuracy of statement to a wonderful birth perhaps a little more than a decade-and-a-half ago. The psychologist served as midwife, and they called the infant the "individual child." A new psychological and educational terminology was devised to describe him, *n* minus one articles of diet and methods of expert handling developed to nurture him throughout all his years of school progress, and the easy task of the high school was ended. Why?

Speaking, of course, somewhat relatively, you high-school folk have had not the easiest but next to the easiest task of any of us working to educate the youth. In the first place, with teachers trained quantitatively at least far better than those of the elementary school, and especially trained in a particular one of those very few sacred lines of intellectual discipline considered appropriate for the glorious task of preparing for college, the high school worked with small student bodies, a survival group of the many who had been called but relatively only the few chosen as able to pass the hurdles—intellectual, social, economic—of all the prehigh-school years. And these very small student bodies tended to agree in that they were the intellectually elite, were gifted along the lines commonly measured by our so-called general intelligence tests and naturally fairly homogeneous grouping maintained. With excellently trained teachers, highly selected and homogeneously grouped students, and a uniform interest in going on to college by the dictated-from-above standard route, the high-school task was relatively easy.

The contrast of that day two decades ago with a present one of our typical cosmopolitan high school is a measure both of progress



and further challenge. With the psychology of individual differences coloring the thinking of all school men really democratic and hence American, we have come to the present moment with the following non-debatable assumptions basic to this paper. (1) With individual difference proved ineradicable, irremovable and the holding power of the elementary school so enlarged that now perhaps one of every three children reaching their teens in the United States enters high school as contrasted with one in ten, twenty years ago, the high school of today has problems of adjustment so mighty to make that static spells disaster along educational, economic, and social lines. (2) Selective elimination is no more possible than it is unwarranted. (3) Variations in intelligence, mechanical aptitude, social powers, character, and temperamental traits, etc., are now seen in bold and compelling relief, and with the quantifying instruments of psychic metrics already in use giving definite answer to the "how much" or "how little" inquiry of science, the high school no less than the grades is being hard put to it thoroughly to make a matter of applied psychology the facts of the pure psychology of individual differences so remarkably being set forward to challenge. (4) Mental endowment must be given opportunity to extend itself along a line appropriate to each individual's possession, and this, when provided, encompassing and solving most problems of lack of interest, school failure and discipline.

What is being done in the forward looking high schools to provide for the individual differences of its pupils? A brief cataloging of activity makes almost a dramatic story—tests both educational and mental are being given, classes are being sectioned upon the basis of general intelligence or capacity to learn, occasionally grouping within a recitation section itself is made, special groups are given work adjusted to the group capacity, added credit is given both to the individual or an honor group for work of high quality, individuals are given opportunity to take a heavy program and finish the high-school course in shorter time, more intensive or enriching work is secured from the more gifted and the minimal essential from the slow, students are grouped, almost transported, into certain vocational courses where brains so-called are supposed not to be at premium, work is motivated, project-psychology is made basic to teaching method, study is supervised, study coach, trial promotion and failure prevention groups are established, etc., etc., ad infinitum. And all the above is well, for it suggests the magic touch of modern

psychology and the wholehearted attempt so to handle the administration of the school as to make its major features, i. e., its basic type, such as a junior high or cosmopolitan type, its sectioned groups, its courses grouped according to vocational appeal or mental limitation, etc., carry the bulk of the individualizing load. Herein the high school is standardizing itself so that, in fairly mass formation, it can do justice to the individual child, and, at the same time, handle the enormous members sent to its halls.

Now the above represents the psychological point of approach, supplemented by the administrative adjustment natural thereunto. I am bold enough to venture to state even before this audience, however, that the ability to measure individual differences of our high-school students and to group them properly far exceeds our skill at present in doing well by them after measurement and placement have been finished. This brings us to the heart of the discussion, namely—curricula-making for pupils of varying ability. Here we have much less a psychological and administrative problem; we have much more a social problem, a social problem from the viewpoint of what ideals and activities are thought by society to be valuable for its youth to possess. It is not necessary to point out the tardiness shown in shaping high-school curricula to fit changed needs of the pupils and to square with a progressive view of an educational aim. Neither to catalog the causes of failure for curricula development to follow close upon the heels of speeding psychological fact and administrative manipulation. It is necessary to emphasize that, with the passage from its long occupied solitary throne of those high-school curricula historically handed down and revered for generations, the way is clear and the necessity upon us to study out those new curricula which will be true to our modified conception of the aim of education and in line with the facts of modern educational psychology.

Time fails to permit to recount the leading attempts now in process to vamp the curriculum or to pay tribute to the forward looking work of Benser, Bobbitt, Charters, and others.

We can afford to ask ourselves here certain very pertinent questions. Are we intelligently alive to the fact that, with placement made, our task of curriculum adjustment just begins to have a chance for success, and that making the placement of the students is but child's play in comparison with determining and administering the

curriculum? Whose curriculum is it to be, the colleges', the teachers', or the pupils'. Can high-school teachers sit down and deliberately study the curricula-making task and hope to carry it through to success? In my judgment the freshet-like impetus generated by the psychological discoveries is bound to carry us with great momentum into the field of radical curricula vamping. Practical steps have already been laid down for the construction of the curricula and these warrant careful consideration at the hand of any high-school principal who, thrilled with the possibilities presented to a school man of vision and patience in the doing, decides to lead his teachers into this veritable land of promise. These steps follow:

(1) What *ideals* or objective forms of satisfaction and *activities* leading toward their attainment are appropriate for the curriculum, taking into account that these major objectives must automatically be influenced by factors of pupil, age, individual differences, environmental and economic and social conditions?

(2) Which of these are of most importance for the high-school pupil in general and for the special groups of pupil sections in particular.

(3) Which of the above may be charged against extra-school obtainment, leaving the remainder to be ranked in importance for direct school concern?

(4) What units of racial subject-matter (broadly defined) function best in teaching these remaining ideals and activities, and in what order and manner is their presentation most effective?

It is easy to see that long and patient study is required, especially that trained leadership is necessary, for the final determination of curricula shaped to meet the needs of high schools in widely differing communities and of widely differing pupils within any one high school. A fair question to raise is whether the high-school authorities might not better delay radical curriculum reconstructions in their own particular schools until such a time as the expertly guided research attempts—Los Angeles and Toledo in particular—have developed a clear technique and shown the workability of their results. On the other hand, any principal may well sit down with his staff, raise the accepted principles of curriculum reconstruction above stated, and challenge his colleagues to see the problem and to inventory the degree to which existing curricula are appropriate and methods of teaching them sound.

For curricula-making for pupils of varying ability is, as has often been intimated in this paper, a large, but only one, part of the problem of individualizing instruction. We have confidence that our psychological technique is proving increasingly adequate for locating and defining individual differences and that the school machinery of class and course organization is moving in the same direction; also, that in good time curricula construction will bring bodies of material shaped to meet the general objectives and the one specific for a typical high school's pupils. Yet the problem of the teacher herself will remain, as it always has been, the most important factor in the equation of educational efficiency. Given students grouped along some principle of significant common possession, given a second factor of a specially worked-out body of curricula material shaped directly in answer to the objectives of ideals and activities mentioned above, the resultant product may be reduced at times, even to zero, by the poor attempts of teaching too often seen even in our high schools.

For, in the future, as in the past, grouping and specializing curricula will not render the individualizing task foolproof. Good teachers always have and always will adjust school tasks to the varying abilities of their pupils; furthermore, they will continue to do this in their own way, and for them the world is not in need of salvation by the guaranteed methods of supervising study, motivating and socializing, recitations, vamping the course of studying, classification by intelligence tests, etc. Reversely, the ordinary or poor teacher may find her task some easier by having the machinery of testing, classification, and predetermined appropriate curricula prepared for her; the machinery will never completely substitute for her own intelligent participation in the learning activity of her never so perfectly classified group the individualizing problem will still be, like the poor, always with her. And whether she claimed supervised study as her goddess and gets her results by securing maximum, average or minimum assignments from a single class group; or perhaps worships at the font of enrichment and disclaims her earlier belief in acceleration; or even claims following with that unknown god always appearing as the just next educational Moses to lead out of the land of educational bondage into the realm of psychological and social freedom, her success will rest finally upon her ability to move the center of gravity from her own desk to those of her pupils, and con-



sciously and intelligently work with them from the position of knowledge, interest, and need occupied by them.

By way of summary, what may we expect of our high schools? First, that they have their pupils grouped in such a way that the several sections are internally fairly well equated. Second, that primarily through the earnest and long continued efforts of principals leading their teachers to the making, there be developed bodies of curriculum material generally productive of the ideals and activities constituting the objectives of secondary education. Third, that these curricula be scaled in quantity, speed of administering, enrichment, etc., to the known makeup and outlook of the group. Finally, that the teacher administering these curricula practice the psychology we and they are all preaching from our several pulpits and, in decentralizing the teaching act, come to be just a little bigger than the pages of a book it never so adequately a curriculum. A known grouping, specially developed curricula, and teachers a little bigger than either bring, when all present and functioning, the assurance of individual justice, a real democracy in education, and hence an educational square deal.

## SECOND SESSION

*February 26, 1924, Tuesday*

The second session was broken into four conferences:

### JUNIOR HIGH-SCHOOL CONFERENCE

The junior high-school program was given in the Red Room of Hotel La Salle at 2:15 p. m., Tuesday, February 26. The chairman of the conference, James M. Glass, Director of Junior High Schools of the State Department of Public Instruction, Pennsylvania, prefaced the papers by reading a brief statement of the history of the junior high-school movement.

*Introductory Remarks of Chairman JAMES M. GLASS, Director of Junior High Schools, State Department of Public Instruction, Pennsylvania.*

The program for this afternoon's section meeting has been designed to focus attention upon and to stimulate a most significant present expansion of the junior high-school movement. It was inevitable that in the first stage of junior high-school development

concentration should be centered about problems of organization and administration. The first need which permitted of no postponement was smooth administrative operation. There was much machinery to be installed before class room processes could be revised.

It was equally inevitable that the second stage of curriculum reconstruction should succeed administrative reorganization. While both stages have been undertaken concurrently in most junior high schools, the degree of concentration and of consequent achievement has in the first decade and a half been greater in the initial and insistent problem of administrative reorganization. Today the stress has passed from administrative to educational reconstruction. Evidences of the present concentration upon curriculum remaking are to be found in all junior high-school experiments.

This condition reflects present educational thought and discussion in all units of the public school system. The N. E. A. and state convention programs of the past two years reveal in all fields of elementary and secondary education a common and unifying objective of curriculum rebuilding.

It is wholly fitting, therefore, that the unit of the school system which is least hampered by traditional practice should assume a position of leadership in the rebuilding of the curriculum. The steady progress of the junior high-school movement will be assured by a present concentration of its powers upon what always has been and must be its most vital problem, i. e., the reconstruction of its program of studies.

Our program this afternoon will, therefore, seek to show the practical methods which have been adopted in several large municipal systems to promote curriculum rebuilding. It is our confident hope that this program may become one further contribution toward converting a present tendency generally to accepted purpose to muster the combined junior high-school strength of the country in a concerted effort upon the basic problem of a reconstructed program of studies.

Mr. Glass introduced the first speaker, SUSAN M. DORSEY, Superintendent of Schools, Los Angeles, California, who read her paper, *The Reconstruction of the Junior High-School Curriculum of Los Angeles*.



## THE RECONSTRUCTION OF THE JUNIOR HIGH-SCHOOL CURRICULUM OF LOS ANGELES

SUSAN M. DORSEY, SUPERINTENDENT OF SCHOOLS,  
LOS ANGELES, CALIFORNIA

In order to understand the difficulties and the comparatively slow progress in curriculum reconstruction in the junior high schools of Los Angeles, a brief account of their inception and history is necessary. Twelve years ago, about the time of their organization, there was much loose talk concerning the great waste of student time in the elementary schools, and of the possibility of saving one year or more through a type of intermediate school that would admit of departmental schedules and eliminate the single track of elementary studies. Naturally enough, those who organized the new school looked to the high schools for their departmental pattern and conceived the idea of moving the high-school program of studies together with its elective opportunities down into the seventh and eighth grades, thereby creating a junior high school. Not until three years ago was elective privilege in Los Angeles removed from the seventh grade. Prior to that time modern languages, Latin, and such commercial subjects as bookkeeping and stenography were freely selected by the wholly inexperienced graduates of the sixth grade without educational guidance, all with the thought that thereby the prospective high school student was being hurried on to graduation. One most unfortunate result of this elective procedure coupled with the impelling idea that a chief function of the junior high school was to accelerate the pupil, was the heaping up of junior high-school credits which it was incumbent upon the high schools to accept and count as credits toward final graduation. In the course of time, it became apparent to all that an end must be had to the graduation of students from senior high schools, who had carried only very partial senior school courses, having entered with an overbalance of credit in the less mature subjects of the junior school.

Perhaps the mistake made in Los Angeles was less regrettable than the more common one of simply combining the former seventh and eighth elementary grades and their single-track course of study with the ninth year of the senior high school; for at least it resulted in an ambitious if mistaken attempt to justify the new type of school

as a time saver, which was not altogether futile even though it greatly retarded the reorganization of the curriculum in a way to deal fairly with the child and with the general school system.

At any rate the first great task of the present administration was to convince both junior and senior high-school faculties that the function of the junior high school was not on the one hand to accelerate pupils, nor on the other to prepare them for the senior school, but to organize and conduct a school which should meet the needs of students of the seventh, eighth, and ninth year age, which should develop those abilities, attitudes, and habits that would find these children at the end of the junior high-school years at that point in their general development where children of that age should be.

In justice to Los Angeles it should be said that prior to the very recent effort in curriculum reorganization, junior high-school people, through the blundering method of trial and error, had reached some conclusions for themselves. One of those conclusions was that geography could not be omitted altogether from the curriculum of these grades. Until three years ago, in pursuance of the aim to make this intermediate school like a high school and to save time, this highly important social subject had been relegated entirely to the elementary schools. A second decision was that valuable time was being wasted in the seventh and eighth years in the study of stenography, a purely vocational subject. A third conclusion reached was that there must be a much wider and more varied program of manual work than the conventional woodshop of the old elementary seventh and eighth grades and the conventional home economics for girls of those same grades. Consequently, Los Angeles some three years ago began to build and equip in every junior high school, shops which offer quite a variety of elementary manual instruction. This is all being done in a most conservative and cautious way. For some the work is prevocational and for others it is merely general trading. Owing to a tremendous expansion in school population, Los Angeles cannot afford the elegance of some junior high-school plants. In all shop buildings the simplicity of real shop conditions is simulated so far as possible, always giving due attention to health requirements. In a few instances shops are being enlarged and adjusted to meet the needs of over-age, over-grown boys sent on from the elementary schools because they have exhausted the possibilities of the elementary school and can profit most by extended and more advanced

manual training combined with academic instruction of a different type from that given in the one-track course of the elementary school.

The reconstruction process has been slow. While there had existed for years committees of teachers who had co-operated more or less intermittently with the superintendent's staff in the preparing and revising of courses of study, it became evident that a thorough-going revision was necessary, which should eventuate in a curriculum more consonant with modern educational thought and with the actual needs of children of that age. Finding it quite impossible for anyone of the superintendent's office to give the close and constant attention to this work that seemed necessary, if results were to be had, it was determined to add to our corps of workers Dr. Franklin K. Bobbitt, whose studies in curriculum making had deservedly received nation-wide attention. Dr. Bobbitt does not figure as a specialist in the junior high-school realm, but the underlying principles of curriculum making are universal and should apply fairly well to any consecutive group of grades.

All must agree that the one thing needful for successful curriculum making in the junior high school is to determine first what this type of school should stand for. Doubtless all agree likewise that the junior high school should function first as a transition unit in the system co-ordinating with the elementary on the one hand and with the high school on the other, partaking to some extent in content, method, and atmosphere of both types of schools; and second, that it should have an atmosphere and purpose of its own, should in fact function distinctively as that school in which, through a more liberalizing training, the transition may be made effectively from the "self-centered mind of childhood to the socialized mind of adulthood." If on the one hand attention is to be given primarily to preparing the students for high school, this must curtail the enrichment of the curriculum in socializing studies and activities adapted to the needs of junior high schools: it must curtail also attempts to discover through trial and observation the aptitudes of the individual student. If on the other hand its place as a link in the public school system is to be ignored, the junior high school will drift into self-centered and vain vagaries.

The keynote of Dr. Bobbitt's curriculum making is the search for the general objectives of education for each type of school, and an effort to discover the special abilities to be developed through

the study of each subject. Accepting certain abilities as those to be developed, the curriculum must suggest the educative material and pupil experiences necessary to attain those abilities.

Great numbers of teachers working on general and subject committees made patient inquiry as to what they had a right to expect from junior high-school training. To give one instance of the thoroughness of the investigation, which is illustrative of a host of others, I read from a certain pamphlet the following generality: "All seem to agree that courses in the social sciences in the junior high school should have as their main purpose the making of good citizens out of the pupils." Let us see how Dr. Bobbitt would analyze and give pith, content, and actual meaning to the purpose of social studies. The following are some of the fundamental educational objectives listed by Dr. Bobbitt as those to be aimed at in social studies:

1. Ability to think, feel, act, and react as an efficient, intelligent, sympathetic, and loyal member of the entire social group.

2. The ability of the citizen to do his individual share in performing those social functions for which all citizens are equally responsible in the support, protection, and oversight of the specialized groups and agencies into which society is differentiated for effectiveness of action. The student is to acquire that ability which, when adulthood is reached, will enable him to perform the following things in connection with the several specialized social agencies:

- (a) Setting up in public opinion and maintaining standards of results to be achieved by the service agency (i. e., What ought we to expect from a city council, police department, etc.?).
- (b) Keeping informed relative to the labors of the service agency by way of noting whether it is aiming at the standards of achievement sanctioned by public opinion.
- (c) Supplying the money required for providing the necessary material facilities.

3. The ability and disposition to use general principles in dealing with economic, political, and other social problems.

4. The ability and the disposition to use, and the habit of using *facts* as the *sine qua non* of thought and decision relative to social matters.



5. Ability, disposition, and habit of abundant and greatly diversified reading as a means of enjoyable and fruitful indirect observation of men, things, and affairs, and of vicarious participation in those affairs.

6. Ability to act in those sympathetic, tactful, and human ways that are both most agreeable and also effective in the conduct of one's relations with one's associates.

From this one illustration may be seen the stimulating and exhaustive character of the investigation carried on to discover what should be the aims in the teaching of any subject. Still much remains to be done in the reorganizing of the junior high-school course of study. The committees are hard at work in gathering materials and outlining student activities which shall most surely develop those attitudes and abilities which pupils of this age should attain.

Effort is concentrated this year on developing the social studies of the curriculum and the pre-vocational shop courses. Distinct progress is being made in both. To speak first of the social studies and some of the differences of opinions and difficulties attending the writing of this particular monograph: School law in California prescribes that civics and United States history shall be taught in the upper elementary grades. There has, however, developed a very general movement toward the use of community civics for the ninth year instead of ancient history, or at least as an alternative. Now it so happens that one impelling reason for the organization of the junior high school was the fact of so much repetition of subject matter in successive years in elementary school. In the reorganization, therefore, it seems important to avoid the repetition of civics in successive junior high-school years. The urge for community civics comes from those who feel that too much training in citizenship cannot be had, especially since many junior high-school students leave at the end of the ninth year, and therefore miss the advanced citizenship training of the senior school. Others believe that ancient history taught in units that have socializing value has developing power quite unsurpassed and that the cultural contacts of this subject are highly educational. Still others would substitute a sort of world history. Good-natured discussion and investigation on the part of the committees is proving highly educative and will eventually evolve something in the way of a unified and enriched course in social studies. In the meantime "Community Civics," by Howard

Copeland Hill, is being used in the ninth year, while those desiring to elect ancient history are being given that opportunity. A satisfactory course in social studies, one that shall unify geography, history, civics, and occupations somewhat more than is now the case, remains to be accomplished, although no one is in doubt as to the large place these studies should have in every school, especially in view of the upsetting conditions of the great war which have revealed weaknesses in our national character and in our moral reactions that were not so apparent formerly. The tendency toward radicalism that creates questions in the minds of even the very young as to the actual merit of our form of government; the shocking revelations of vulgar selfishness, brazen greed, and dishonesty even in high places: the sudden changes in social conditions growing out of the rapid development in industry and the consequent massing of human life in large congested communities which afford scant space for even the physical activities of childhood, and finally the economic readjustments that rob the home of many of its former helpful ministrations: all these factors and influences call for tremendous emphasis on those studies and activities that tend to develop social understanding and sympathy, community morale, and high-mindedness.

In preparing and administering this part of the course of study, two difficulties are almost insurmountable, one the dearth of adequate texts and the other the lack of teachers trained to appreciate social values and able to organize and vitalize instruction through the right sort of subject matter and activities. Definite progress is being made in both these particulars. Textbooks are improving noticeably in furnishing more vital material organized in a more understandable way than was formerly the case. Teachers, too, are seeing the problems and responding whole-heartedly to the demands upon their time and energies to help the junior high-school students into a larger social consciousness and into at least an elementary understanding of social problems through the regular studies of the school and through a multiplicity of activities in student self-government and in school clubs designed to meet the social needs.

As was mentioned above, very especial attention is being given to developing prevocational courses: these vary greatly to meet the needs of localities, although there are some constants, such as food and clothing for girls and woodshop and print shop for boys, the



latter existing not primarily to make printers or to print forms for the board of education but as an aid to school consciousness and as a factor in the development of the school community through its paper and other forms of publicity. The print shop becomes, of course, a valuable adjunct to the departments of English and art.

Five factors enter into the instruction in shop courses: a definite aim, actual participation in some home and community activity, occupational information, occupational observation, and common-sense guidance and advice.

In some schools elementary electricity and automobile repairing are offered. There is thorough analysis in order of difficulty of the sorts of jobs boys may be expected to do satisfactorily, as: Jobs involving body and radiator work, tire repair, chassis work, etc., etc. There follows a statement of what the boy should *know* in each type of repair: as for instance in the case of tires he should know why tires deteriorate; how to make simple repairs on the road; care of inner tube; best kind of patch; why a part should be cleaned before patching, etc., etc. Nothing makes a greater appeal to the boys who love the action and the experience of taking machines apart and putting them together. No city in the world has more automobiles proportionately than Los Angeles and nowhere are traffic problems more complicated, all of which matters are taken up as a part of the automobile instruction.

In one of these schools there has existed for years a class in chef cookery. Numbers of boys have here received elementary training of a sufficiently thorough character to make it possible for them to qualify as junior workers on transcontinental diners.

The curriculum as being worked out in Los Angeles takes cognizance also of the varying capacities of children. Slowly, there is being evolved an enriched program for those who can profit thereby and one of basic essentials, though not meager material, for those who need to move at a more leisurely pace. In the case of the latter there is being done a piece of work in educational self-measurement that is quite worth while. A series of lessons in the several subjects outlines by question and suggestion the material to be covered in such fashion as almost to constitute a compendium for self-direction and intensive drill work.

As the committees have one by one completed their work (and

it should be here stated that the actual writing of the course of study has been a joint undertaking of the teachers, certain parts or features being assigned to different committee members), the manuscripts have been reviewed by Mr. Arleigh C. Griffin of the educational research department, approved by the superintendent and finally have been printed in simple, inexpensive form in one of the school print shops. Each monograph contains the course of study in a single subject for both the junior and senior high schools. One artistic soul made no comment upon the merits of the work itself but uttered severe censure of the garb in which the several subject monographs, some twenty in number, appear. By intention this curriculum is put forth in inexpensive form since the whole project is tentative and the material will all be worked over when desirable changes shall have been agreed upon. Typographically it is most imperfect with mistakes that would be inexcusable in a work designed to be permanent. Some of the monographs are exceptional pieces of constructive curriculum work; others are only indifferently well done and others are manifestly deficient. This difference is due to the degree in which the several committees have a vision of what was to be done.

Of one of the monographs I desire to speak briefly,—the one called “Character and Conduct.” In this, the instruction in behavior is developed not as a separate entity but through the several subjects and activities of school life. To quote from the monograph, “There can be no separate and individual curriculum for character building. Whatever is to be accomplished in character teaching must be done through the regular school subjects and through interest developed in the various school organizations and activities.” Eleven objectives are laid down as a tentative list of the abilities to be acquired through a character building program, among which are the ability to maintain good health, to develop satisfactory civic relationships, to carry on a vocation, and to cultivate a spirit of reverence. There follows a careful account of the way in which these objectives may influence the instruction in every subject and the way in which the instruction in each subject may carry over into character building. In other words, upon the teacher of each subject is laid a definite responsibility to assist in character building through the material and activities of her subject.

The course of study in shop work may illustrate the teacher obligation to hold in mind certain specific objectives that will influence

behavior: it stipulates that the student should acquire abilities that will enable him to work with any group by learning:

- (a) To assist others in big jobs.
- (b) To be considerate of others in the use of machines and materials.
- (c) To work with others in experiments and reading.
- (d) To respect the rights of others in the shop.

Authority is granted each teacher to aim at developing reverence through her particular subject. The following outline tends to show the ways in which reverence should be developed through the study of social science. It notes that the pupil—

1. Should develop an appreciation of the good and the beautiful in every-day life.
2. Should learn to see the work of the Creator and to respect the inspired handiwork of man.
3. Should develop reverence for the ideals of great people.
4. Should learn to respect all religions because of the sincerity of the converts and followers.
5. Should learn to respect the primitive religions which were reaching out after Deity.
6. Should study the development and influence of the Christian religion.

Some school projects of a highly interesting character have been worked out in consonance with the unifying and co-operative spirit of the course of study. One such culminated recently, a playlet, *Aladdin's Lamp*: this was a product primarily of the English department evolved during weeks of study of fairy tales, myths, legends, and folk lore. In its production, however, the art, music, home economics, shop, and physical training departments were equally concerned, since it involved careful studies and workmanship in color, design, costuming, stage accessories, settings, and in oriental posturing. The whole was motivated through being worked out in a realm of thought and action essentially interesting to boys and girls of junior high-school years.

In the meantime, through a joint publication, every junior high school makes contributions to every other of the most significant activities or experiments being carried on in the respective schools. This

publication, printed in one of the school print shops, is entitled "How." The last "How" contained information on the following subjects:

1. A ten-week plan in English.
2. Lesson plans in junior high-school supervised study
3. How I mark tests.
4. A better English campaign.
5. Homogeneous grouping.

Finally, we have not achieved in Los Angeles; we are, however, honestly trying to adjust education to the present day needs of children of junior high-school age. We believe that these children need a more sympathetic, liberalizing program than the one track schedule of the old elementary school, one that opens up the riches of life for them to gaze upon, to explore and to appropriate. Whatever has been tested anywhere and found best, we are anxious to try in a sincere desire to improve the educational material and experience for our children. One thing we have fairly well learned and that is that to get anywhere, we must have a goal. Objectives in education have become a real thing to us, not a panacea, but something as indispensable as a target to the marksman.

Associate Superintendent of Schools, A. L. Threlkeld of Denver, Colorado, read his paper, *Guiding Objectives in the Making of Curricula in the Junior High Schools*.

### *GUIDING OBJECTIVES IN THE MAKING OF CURRICULA IN THE JUNIOR HIGH SCHOOL*

*Associate Superintendent of Schools A. L. Threlkeld, Denver,  
Colorado*

For the purposes of this paper the junior high school consists of grades seven, eight, and nine. The following objectives will be discussed:

1. The first two years of the junior high school should be given over to a program of exploration to the end of bringing the pupil to a point where his choice of an educational or a vocational career will be based on the factors essential to an intelligent decision.

By implication this includes two important principles; namely, (1) the socialization of the pupil's attitudes and the integration of his education through broad introduction to life, and (2) as stated



by Briggs, every course of the program must be worth while in its contribution to the pupil as far as it is pursued.

2. The ninth grade should be the time for beginning definite curricula as far as the exploration period of the previous two years have revealed sufficient reasons.

Perhaps no greater error has been made in shaping an educational career for a child than that which consists in mistaking a special interest for a special talent. It is of peculiar interest to observe the inconsistency of the adult mind in its attitude toward children with respect to this question. When the six or eight year old boy says, with all of the sincerity of which he is capable, that he wants to be a motorman on a street car, a truck driver, or a prize fighter, we say it is only a temporary interest. We do not say that he has inherited special talents for these fields. Such interests generally do not line up with our interests. But if a child happens to be born in a home where the parents play musical instruments, where he hears music produced and talked about much of the time, and thereby as naturally becomes interested in music as he would have become interested in horses and cattle if he had been born on the farm, we say he has special talent biologically for music and must have a special music curriculum from a very early age clear through his school life. He probably results in a specialized individual in its unfavorable sense. That is, he is a musician first and a citizen secondarily.

It seems certain that success in producing music does depend in the last analysis on certain biological factors. This is not to be denied. Nor is it here claimed that all people possess these factors. But this paper does take the position that in all probability the possession of these factors is much more widely spread among the people than we generally assume,—that through accidents of sociological circumstances only a few of those inherently qualified come in contact with the stimuli necessary for the response. There is no denying the tremendous significance of the biological inheritance. In this, as in all human affairs, it is obviously one of the essentials. We should tend toward giving it more credit rather than less. We can do this only by scientific experimentation in organizing systems of stimuli to the end of discovering and developing the most and the best that there is in our biological inheritance. The argument here is that we are not justified in thinking of the biological factor in terms of narrow limitations of valuable possibilities.

Many school teachers can apply the following situation with point to their own personal experience.

A person grows up in the vicinity of a normal school and becomes a successful teacher. It is assumed that he was born with a special aptitude for teaching. But who knows what would have been the result had he been born in the vicinity of a law school? This is not to deny the existence of special capacities, but is it not at least possible that this person did not develop his best possibilities just because he grew up in an educational environment that opened only one career as an opportunity for him? If we grant that one inherits special talents we must assume them to be either equal or varying in degree. In either case we have our argument for a program of education that will enable the individual to discover the field or fields best for him.

This sort of illustration could be repeated without end in practically all fields of learning. A child in a home where politics is the dominant interest will likely respond to the stimuli of that situation in terms of curiosity about politics in such a way as to lead some wise relative to say "he is a born statesman."

I want here to remark that if a child happens to go exactly contrary to the dominant interest of the home, it is obviously not in itself a refutation of this theory. It may be that some stimulus from outside of the home has come to him with more weight and more point than has been the case with those of the home itself. Observation would lead one to believe that this frequently happens. Parents who are musicians may, through violating the laws of psychology, not only fail to interest their children in music but they may prejudice their children firmly against it.

As implied by a previous paragraph, nothing in this is intended to convey the impression that the writer believes that people are born equal in intelligence, using the term "intelligence" to mean "general capacity to learn." Nobody ever believed that. But the position is here taken that biological inequalities may not mean as much in terms of special abilities as we have been accustomed dogmatically to conclude. On the other hand we have not in the past varied social conditions in controlled experimentation enough to get a glimpse of the possibilities in the field of intellectual response.

It is the assumption of this paper, therefore, that people are not limited by biological inheritance in such a way as to preclude the



development through education of vast intellectual resources which have not yet been explored. This assumption is made with respect to the great masses of people, and is to allow for exceptions. Justification for it is claimed on the basis of the studies of sociologists and psychologists, which studies are as yet incomplete, but they are tremendously significant.

There has been much research by Thorndike and others which strongly indicates, if it does not prove, that in general there is a high correlation among special abilities in the same individual. Granting that there are such things as inherited special talents, there is ground for the position that there are so many of them in the same individual that we are in little danger of not finding him able to respond successfully along many lines.

In the case of the Lincoln School, several pupils came who were reported "tone deaf." Upon experimentation it was found that not one of these pupils was "tone deaf." No doubt it is physiologically impossible for some people to appreciate music, but from the way in which some people protest against a music appreciation program for all on the theory that only a few are talented, one would think that half our population is tone deaf, and of the other half about one per cent are "fit material" for music instruction. And this with so much evidence to the contrary on all sides that no one has felt it worth while to gather it for presentation. It would be like trying to prove that air is something which is breathed by most people.

We are not, at least at this time, under the necessity of concluding that the biological capacity of people in general is so limited that not much is to be hoped for through the enrichment and organization of stimuli, nor do we need to conclude that one's biological inheritance is so extremely special in nature as to make it easy of discovery or that a special capacity is so inclusive of one's total possibilities as to justify a highly specialized curriculum at an early age.

We are living in an age in which we are beginning to find out with some definiteness what has happened. But we do not know so much about why things have happened, and we therefore do not know a great deal about what could have happened. Consider the following type of reasoning:

A certain man has been eminently successful. When he was in school he studied Latin, Greek, formal English grammar, and mathematics. That is enough for the typical individual. By analogy he

concludes that one is cause and the other effect. The fact is we have no basis for a conclusion here. The above individual could not have studied anything else in secondary schools and colleges a generation ago. We do not have the chance to compare him to one who studied broadly in the social sciences as a major field. There are few such individuals as products of our older programs of study. An individual who had a particular training cannot compare it in value to something he did not have. Through such reasoning, if such it can be called, we have accepted certain special curricula as being the best without making comparisons upon which a valid conclusion must be based.

This should not be interpreted as an attempt to indict the traditional curricula on the ground that they have been without value. The writer believes that they have been of great value. The protest is simply against the acceptance of any special curriculum in education without first subjecting it to all reasonable methods of testing which can be used to justify it in the light of the purposes of today.

Are we not justified now in the following assertions:

1. Through some accident of circumstances a pupil gets a specialized interest at an early age. This special interest often leads to the hasty conclusion that he is destined by nature to follow this track.

2. In many cases it is the special interest of the parents alone based dogmatically on tradition.

3. The school conforms by adjusting a special curriculum, and the result is the adult who is narrow in his outlook for the simple reason that there are so many viewpoints in human affairs to which his thinking has never been stimulated. He has an exaggerated opinion of the value of his particular position in life, because it was hastily and superficially chosen in the first place. He does not comprehend his significance rationally for the simple reason that his choice of it was not based on a view of various possibilities, which called for the weighing of one value against another. He had his choice evolved out of a thorough conflict in claims which had caused him to look for real reasons why he should take this course or that, the story would be different. One does not in the real sense sell a thing to himself if it has never been challenged. He will the more deeply and clearly visualize the values in a certain course of action if he has thoroughly weighed it against alternatives.

Then the junior high school has this question before it. Will it send the pupil at once into a special curriculum on the basis of what he and his parents may have in mind for him when he enters the seventh grade, or will he be required to try himself out over a broad field before a conclusion is reached as to what particular curriculum he should follow through the senior high school?

It is the point of this paper that the principal function of the junior high school is that of directing the individual pupil in exploring himself in order to make possible the most intelligent choice of that which is to be his major educational or vocational interest. If the pupil is to be the pivot upon which this question is to turn, how can the choice of a senior high-school curriculum or a vocation be intelligently made except on the basis of experience broad enough to permit of evaluation through comparisons?

By "choice" as here used it is not meant that even after the pupil has carried through a comprehensive try-out program he will be permitted to choose his senior high-school curriculum with absolute freedom. His parents and the school should not permit him to make a choice that is not justified by the evidence deduced from his try-out program. This evidence should be largely objective in character in terms of results of intelligence and standard achievement tests, medical examinations, and teachers' judgments, all in such form as to make decisions depend upon evidence.

To carry out this idea it will be claimed here that the seventh and eighth grades in the junior high school should be organized to give the pupil a try-out in the following fields: English, mathematics, social sciences, health, shop work, fine arts, general science, commerce, home economics, and the languages. On the basis of thirty periods per week per pupil as a normal program this will mean that practically all of the pupil's time through these two years will be prescribed for him. It is possible to allow for one elective in the eighth grade.

It is difficult to see how a try-out program worthy of the name can be carried out if any considerable part of the pupil's seventh and eighth grade time is given over to electives. If this election is to be based on something better than guess, whim, or prejudice, it must be based on his direct experience. As stated previously, this experience is inadequate if it is not broad enough to contain the factors essential to an intelligent comparison.

Dr. Bonser claims that eventually we should be able to organize the elementary curriculum on an activity basis in such a way that by the end of the sixth grade we shall in many cases have found the pupil's special aptitudes. But that we shall do this soon is uncertain and there are many who would proceed in the opposite direction and ever postpone to a later date the choice of a special curriculum. Early specialization seems to be tending toward disrepute just now on account of the feeling that much of our troubles, past and present, have been due to the narrow outlook of people and that the ever increasing complexity of social relationships calls for a corresponding broadening and enriching of the individual's training. From one point of view it seems reasonable that higher civilization should call for a longer period of youth.

There are those who would claim that prognostic tests can be substituted for much of such a try-out program but the writer does not subscribe to that theory at this time. The time has not come when we can make such tests the sole criteria. So far as possible they should be used to supplement the try-out courses. Such tests should add much objective evidence to substantiate the choice finally made, and incidentally such a practice will offer excellent experience upon which to perfect the tests themselves.

Then, so far as the first two years of the junior high school are concerned, the first major principle of this paper is that the content of the pupil's curriculum should be so selected as to direct the choice of an educational or a vocational career which will be the expression of that for which he is best fitted biologically,—this to be done primarily by exploring his native endowments by means of try-out courses covering the major fields of life.

By implication this principle protects the value of a common culture basis for our citizenship and the integration of the pupil's training. By his introduction to the various fields of life he gets the experience necessary to a higher appreciation of all worthy groups of people. In finally coming to a choice of a particular career through comparisons and contrasts in values he sees the relationship of other fields to that which he has chosen.

A further implication of the above major principle is the theory which is now commonly accepted; namely, that any course should be vital in its content up to any point to which it is carried—vital in



terms of its direct contribution to the life of the pupil. There is no conflict between this and the try-out idea. In fact, there could not be a genuine try-out on any other basis. There has been no try-out of any course unless the pupil has experienced that course in terms of its worth to him.

As the second major principle here submitted the ninth grade should be the year in which the pupil takes some definite direction which is to be continued in the senior high school. In some cities definite vocational training may have to be given to certain groups during this year on the theory that it will be their last year in school. But the main program should be organized toward keeping all who are capable in school through the senior high school. If nothing is begun in the ninth grade which definitely leads on, the result may be great losses in potential intellectual resources through pupils' dropping out at the close of the junior high-school period. There should be the closest of connection here through the beginning of highly motivated curricula in the ninth grade.

How this idea ties up with the work of the seventh and eighth grades is obvious when one considers the fact that high motivation comes from thorough conviction of a curriculum's worth, and this conviction cannot be superimposed. It must come out of the pupil's experience in comparing values. The try-out program furnishes this experience.

To summarize: First—The seventh and eighth grades of the junior high school should furnish the diversified experience for the pupil which will enable him, his parents, and the school to make a relatively intelligent choice of the particular curriculum which he is to follow through the senior high school, or a relatively intelligent choice of a vocation if he is to drop out of school. This objective will integrate the pupil's education and socialize his attitudes. It will require each course to be worth while as far as it is pursued.

Second.—So far as the try-out program of grades seven and eight reveal reasons, definite curricula should be begun in the ninth grade.

MR. CHARLES R. FOSTER, ASSOCIATE SUPERINTENDENT OF SCHOOLS OF PITTSBURGH, PENNSYLVANIA, read his paper, *Teacher Participation in Curriculum Making*.

## TEACHER PARTICIPATION IN CURRICULUM MAKING

ASSOCIATE SUPERINTENDENT OF SCHOOLS, CHARLES R. FOSTER,  
PITTSBURGH, PENNSYLVANIA

I am glad that the maker of this program has suggested as a topic worthy of our consideration the question of *Teacher Participation in Curriculum Making in Secondary Education*. Those of us who have anything to do with secondary-school administration realize profoundly the necessity at this time for a reconstructed program of studies, reconstructed curricula, and reconstructed courses of study.

Marvelous changes have taken place in society in recent years. A great cosmopolitan group is attending our high schools. Customs have changed. Occupational requirements are legion. Individual differences must be recognized. All these and many other things have arisen to make the job of the curriculum maker a real one.

We have already discovered that the matter of the determining of objectives is a mighty big task. The selection of subject matter to meet these objectives is highly important, and since it is quite generally recognized that the scientific method ought to be pursued in the making of the curriculum, we can all see that it is quite an undertaking to construct or reconstruct the curricula for our secondary schools. Now, are teachers qualified to undertake such an important piece of work? In answering this question, I might say that I am most heartily in accord with the views expressed by Dr. Horn, of Iowa University, in an address upon this very subject delivered at the last July meeting of the N. E. A. Dr. Horn's suggestion, as I get it in the published report of his address, is briefly as follows: "The best course of study results only from building it upon the best experience, the soundest research, and the keenest judgment which this country can afford. The courses in the various subjects must be made by committees which will represent the best thought of the country. They must be made on a national basis. No local public school system is big enough for the job. Most local courses are very mediocre or very decidedly inferior in quality. Expenses of such committees should be paid while in session. Clerical assistance should be provided."

"As a result of such a procedure, we should have better courses, greater stimulation to teachers in service, and greater confidence in such courses."



"Such courses would make for permanence of policy and would provide for adequately following up a method until teachers could be sufficiently trained in it. Such courses would help teacher training institutions. They would be of assistance to small school systems, and would give us better textbooks."

Dr. Horn gives an illustration of a committee upon this basis, made up of experts from all over the country, including every branch of the service from the class room teacher to the superintendent and college professor.

This plan, of course, would cost money, but it would be worth while.

I recently heard Dr. Charters of the University of Pittsburgh say that a course of study cannot be properly worked out except at the cost of a considerable sum of money. He told of the expense amounting to several thousand dollars involved in the working out of a course in retail salesmanship.

I cannot go any further into the details of Dr. Horn's plan, but can only express the hope that this organization, or the Department of Superintendence of the N. E. A. will find the means to carry out this practical suggestion.

In the meantime, we shall be obliged to depend upon local or state committees.

The great bulk of the teachers have given very little thought to the matter of the making of the course in their own particular subject, and the most of them are perfectly content to have it worked out by someone else. However, I think that is a valuable thing for a teacher to be assigned to a committee to do this work.

If for no other reason, it is a good thing for teachers to be placed in a position where they will be compelled to study the objectives and consider the subject matter to be used in connection with a consideration of their own particular subject. Teachers are bound to grow while working upon such a committee. Especially if it has a competent chairman.

I am deeply interested in this subject at the present time, because it fell to my lot to appoint at the beginning of the present term, committees covering the whole field of secondary education to reconstruct the various courses in this field for the city of Pittsburgh. These committees are covering grades seven to twelve, inclusive. Every

one realizes the necessity of making the courses continuous so that there will not be any breaks between the junior and senior high schools.

Up until just recently it has been quite impossible to do this because of the prejudices of the senior high-school teachers. Junior high-school people were literally compelled to make their own courses without the co-operation of the senior high-school group. This was bad for both institutions and resulted in many inequalities and a lack of co-ordination. It had a tendency to further the breach between the two schools.

Fortunately, this condition is improving. Teachers and administrators are realizing that the only sensible thing to do is to get together. Hoping that the time was ripe in Pittsburgh to do this very thing, the superintendent authorized the appointment of such committees. These committees consisting of representatives from both junior and senior high schools have been working together since last September.

Up to the present time there have been no casualties, and I have faith to believe that by the end of the present semester, all committees will have very definite reports. Some of these committees have been meeting weekly. I am sure that the members of these committees will be greatly benefitted personally and will be stronger, better teachers because of the work which they are doing on the committee no matter what the final outcome of the work of the committee may be. Some of these committees are headed by high-school principals, others by directors of departments. The members of the committees are made up mainly of teachers. They have been given absolute freedom to work out their own ideas and are not hampered in any way from above.

You might be interested in knowing that it is the purpose of the superintendent to make these committees permanent. Everyone knows that it is the usual custom for a committee to work intensively for a short period of time, prepare a report which is printed and then forget it until a further demand for reconstruction of the course comes, when another committee is appointed and goes through the same procedure.

The plan in Pittsburgh calls for the retirement of one-third of the committee each year. This means that a majority of the committee will always be familiar with the work of the committee. It

will mean that new blood is constantly being injected into the committee. The benefits to be derived from membership upon such a committee will be extended to a larger number of school people.

Such permanent committees will find that one of their biggest jobs will come immediately following the printing of their report. They will want to get the reaction of the great body of teachers who will put their course into effect. This will constitute real teacher participation in the making of the curriculum. They will continue to hold regular meetings to discuss the suggestions, criticisms, and questions which will come up as a result of experience in the field.

In this way the courses will be under constant revision. The plan also contemplates the holding of many of these meetings during school hours so that the members will be able to concentrate their minds upon the work of the committee because they are fresh and not fatigued at the close of a day of their regular work. It is the plan of the superintendent to send substitutes to the buildings to take the places of class room teachers who are serving on such committees.

We are calling in experts to sit in conference with these committees to give expert counsel and advice.

Just last week, the chairman of this afternoon's program, James M. Glass, spent three days sitting with some of these committees giving the result of his recent study of curriculum practice in this country under the Commonwealth Fund. Other experts in various fields will be called in from time to time.

In addition to committees covering the various school subjects, the plan calls for a small committee of very carefully selected members which is known as the co-ordinating or reviewing committee. It will be the work of this committee to avoid duplication, to co-ordinate the various school subjects, and to place the final stamp of approval upon the work of the committees before it goes to the printer. It will also be the duty of this committee to decide which subject committee has jurisdiction in the use of disputed content material which might properly be appropriated by more than one committee. For example, in our recent conference with Mr. Glass it was clearly indicated that health instruction could be included in the general science, social studies, or hygiene committees. This question could be very properly referred to the co-ordinating committee.

Most of the first four months was taken up with a study of the objectives. It speaks well for the teachers that they are willing to

spend months studying why they are teaching a certain subject. We have been compelled because of the mounting costs in secondary education to give an account of our stewardship. This is fortunate for the boys and girls. We are willing to admit that even the boys and girls ought to know why they are studying a certain subject and consider it our duty to see to it that they do understand it.

Mr. Glass, the maker of this program, has suggested that I tell you about some of the things which these committees are doing. My time will permit only a slight reference to the work of one of these committees,—i.e., the social studies committee, which is a typical illustration of the method of approach to the work of these committees. This can best be done by quoting from the report of the chairman of the committee, Mr. J. F. Bailey, principal of the David B. Oliver Junior-Senior High School.

Social study should result in such social attitudes and actions as will promote general welfare.

Our committee has been charged with the duty of making a fresh study of the course of study in this field of the curriculum, and to present a statement of the results of such study as will dispose the entire group of teachers and administrators to an easy application of any suggestions made.

Each item of discussion before the committee is presented by committee representative to departmental teaching group for criticism and suggestion. (Another illustration of teacher participation.)

Criticisms and suggestions are considered regularly at every session of our making committee. All proposals before our committee are placed in duplicate in hands of everyone concerned for detail study.

After getting this understanding of usual procedure established, our committee considered the nature of its field of work. Whether we should construe ourselves as a committee on social sciences, social science, social studies, social study, history and civics, or history-civics. Our unanimous conclusion was in favor of social study. This decision was in large measure determined by our primary purpose—namely “intelligent co-operation.”

We know that “intelligent co-operation” at times embraces history, political science, geography, economics, sociology, and psychology, but that at no time do people who are effective in rendering



intelligent co-operation stop to list in categories the different helpful agencies.

It is our judgment that the only persons using political science as an isolated unit for illustration are academic observers.

Our next discussion was on the method of treatment of our field. The unanimous decision was in favor of the problem method and, where possible, use the project method. This much out of the way, we then set about making a brief digest of authoritative opinion relative to our field of work and making an analysis of some up-to-date practice that might guide us.

Consideration of these two items produced the problem of objectives of the course in social study and how to determine them.

We began by listing the things citizens do or are supposed to do and under what desirable ideals are these things done.

Then our committee set down the acknowledged objectives of the junior high school and compared these objectives with citizen activities and by reason of certain close relationships being in evidence, we concluded these relationships should be our general objectives for our social study course.

With a given list of general objectives the problem at once became how to reach them. What discussions shall pupils participate in, and what motions shall they go through? To answer this question, we turned to a consideration of the problems citizens face in doing the things they do. From this list of problems we selected a special list that were of closest connection to our objectives.

We are now at the stage of trying to determine how these problems can be solved. What knowledge, what attitudes, what habits are essential to their satisfactory solution?

We have immediately before us the problem of ascertaining what share of these problems can be left to grades below junior high school, also what should be left for senior high grades.

The remainder we propose to organize for study with recognition of proper distribution, logical sequence, and pedagogical procedure among pupils of seventh, eighth, and ninth year grades.

We hope to be able to give a sufficiently detailed statement of reference material, also practical suggestions of class room method as will give some tangible hope of the attainment of the result desired.

We should like to be able to contribute toward the establishment



of some acceptable standards of achievement but as yet we have no lively hopes in this direction.

MR. H. L. HARRINGTON, SUPERVISING PRINCIPAL OF INTERMEDIATE SCHOOLS, AND PRINCIPAL OF JEFFERSON INTERMEDIATE SCHOOL, DETROIT, MICHIGAN, read his paper, *Teacher Training During Experimental Operation of Reconstructed Curriculum*.

## TEACHER TRAINING DURING EXPERIMENTAL OPERATION OF RECONSTRUCTED CURRICULUM

H. L. HARRINGTON,  
SUPERVISING PRINCIPAL OF INTERMEDIATE SCHOOLS, AND PRINCIPAL  
OF JEFFERSON INTERMEDIATE SCHOOL, DETROIT

What follows is an attempt to describe briefly what has been done in Detroit along the line of teacher training during the experimental operation of the reconstructed curriculum.

In September, 1919, the Detroit board of education established the policy that in the future elementary schools should be built for the first six grades only, that grades seven, eight, and nine should be cared for in intermediate schools, and that the senior high schools should consist of grades ten, eleven, and twelve. This was adopted after several years' experience with junior high schools, although previous to this time no thoroughgoing attempt had been made to reconstruct the program of studies for these schools.

With the board of education committed to the intermediate organization, the superintendent's staff set about the reconstruction of the program of studies, and this program was first put into effect in some of the schools in September, 1921. At present it is uniformly used in the six intermediate schools, affecting about 8,700 pupils. This program has constantly been revised in the light of our experience with it, and is at present in operation substantially as given on the pages which have been distributed.

The problem of teacher training in connection with this program was naturally one of the most important which was encountered. Fortunately, conditions were favorable to carrying out such a program, both as to available training agencies, and as to the general attitude among the teachers.

Detroit is fortunate in having a teachers' college, which has as its ideal not only the training of new teachers, but also the training of teachers in service. It has from the inception of the new intermediate program gone much more than half way in devising and giving to teachers who are interested in intermediate work credit extension courses in evening and summer school. A more detailed account of the nature of this work will follow.

There has been also for many years a strongly organized force of general subject-supervisors employed by the board of education. Some of these supervisors, as in the so-called special subjects, have from the beginning extended their activities over all grades from the first through the twelfth, but for the regular subjects this has not been the case, as supervision here has extended no farther than the elementary grades. In order that the intermediate schools might profit by the supervisory and teacher training activities of these specialists, arrangements were made early in the year 1921-22 for them to extend their activities over the intermediate schools.

The attitude of the teaching force toward the new program was kept favorable by the provision of the board of education that the salary schedule of the intermediate school should be the same as that of the senior high school, and the qualifications for teachers should be the same also, except that a limited number of teachers who had only the requirements for elementary teaching might be promoted to the intermediate schools, upon the intermediate salary schedule, provided they had attained to the rank of first assistant, that is, assistant principal, in one of the elementary schools, and provided also that they should have completed successfully certain accepted courses in Detroit Teachers' College, or elsewhere, upon the intermediate school. There was and is, therefore, a considerable group of such rather superior elementary teachers who very willingly undergo formal training courses in order to be promoted to the intermediate school and its salary schedule.

There has been for some years past, also, a large number of teachers with high and intermediate school qualifications, many of them with considerable teaching experience in Detroit, or out in the state, who have been attracted to Detroit, and who have taken elementary-school positions until openings should occur in the higher schedules of the intermediate and high schools. It is from these two groups that most of the intermediate school positions necessi-

tated by new growth are filled, and considerable numbers of these people are willing to take extension courses to better their chance for promotion.

With the inception of the new program, the first care of the administration was to insure that the educational philosophy underlying the intermediate school should be understood by those who would be primarily responsible for their operation: principals, assistant principals, and heads of departments. To aid in this regard there was run in the extension department of Detroit Teachers' College during the years 1920-21 and the two succeeding years a course to which were invited (1) principals and assistant principals of intermediate schools then in operation, (2) men and women of promise in intermediate, high, and elementary schools, who it was thought might in the future qualify to act as principals, assistant principals, or heads of departments in these schools. Membership was by invitation only. It was frankly stated at the outset that the purpose of the course was to prepare people to act in the various administrative and higher instructional capacities as the intermediate schools developed, in so far as an understanding of the purposes which it was hoped the intermediate school might accomplish, and a familiarity with the literature of the subject, might constitute preparation.

In these courses, or courses similar to them in other institutions, every principal and assistant principal, and practically every head of department now in the intermediate schools has been enrolled. This has gone far toward setting up the proper attitude among those in responsible positions upon which to base the more detailed problem of training the individual teacher.

Mention has previously been made of the training courses offered by Detroit Teachers' College to aid in the intermediate problem. The list of such courses is rather extensive and varied. In summer school their character has varied from methods courses, to content courses in certain instances such as general science where a new content or at least a new arrangement of content seemed to make a content course desirable. They have embraced both curriculum and extra-curriculum activities. At one time or another during the past four summers the following courses bearing upon the intermediate problem have been offered.

1. Boy Scout Leadership.
2. Camp Fire Guardian's Course.
3. Community Civics.
4. Girl Scout Captain's Course.
5. Modern Social Problems.
6. Principles of the Intermediate School.
7. Principles of Auditorium Teaching.
8. Socialization of English Teaching in Elementary and Intermediate Grades.
9. Teaching of General Science.
10. Teaching of Intermediate Mathematics.
11. Teaching Mechanical Drawing.
12. Teaching of United States History.
13. The Social Science Curriculum.
14. World Problems in Biological Science.
15. World Problems in Physical Science.

In the evening extension classes of Detroit Teachers' College during the preparation and operation of the reconstructed program of studies the following courses have been offered:

1. Auditorium Activities.
2. Camp Fire Guardian's Course.
3. Community Civics.
4. Curriculum Construction in Art.
5. Curriculum Construction in Health Education.
6. Experimental Course in General Language.
7. Girl Scout Captain's Course.
8. Manual Training in Intermediate Schools.
9. Methods in Intermediate Mathematics.
10. Principles of Intermediate School.
11. Reading in Grammar and Intermediate Grades.
12. Socialization of Teaching English in Elementary and Intermediate Schools.
13. Teaching of General Science.
14. Teaching of Household Mechanics.
15. Teaching of Modern Language.
16. The Social Science Curriculum.
17. World Problems in Physical and Biological Science.

The instructors in these courses are to some extent taken from the regular faculty of Detroit Teachers' College; in some instances

experts have been brought to Detroit to give courses when no local instructor was available, but in the great majority of cases these courses have been taught by members of the administrative and supervisory staffs of the system.

So much for the more formally organized aspects of the training program.

Mention was previously made of the extension of the activities of the supervisory council to include the intermediate schools. The adoption of this policy made available to the principals of the schools the personnel of the supervisory group in the no less vital but rather less formal training of teachers actually within the buildings. Training of this sort takes the following forms:

1. Demonstration lessons. Principals will initiate and supervisors will organize in co-operation with superior teachers the teaching of a lesson or series of lessons to be taught under class room conditions, and observed by other teachers, followed by discussion. This procedure is used to bring out the use of the lengthened period in supervised study, the socialization of the recitation, methods of using tests, or other instructional devices.

2. The adaptation of subject matter to the various intelligence groups. A number of experiments in which principal, teacher, and supervisor co-operate in this field are now under way.

3. The formulation and experimental testing of new courses of study. This is being carried on through the co-operation of supervisors, principals, and teachers in a number of courses, notably general science, social science, and the industrial and practical arts.

Before going further it is well briefly to outline the instructional organization within the intermediate school, so that the next phase of teacher training may be better understood.

Instruction is divided in each school into six departments—health, language (English and foreign), exact science (mathematics and general science), social science, fine arts, and practical and industrial arts. Each department has a head, who is responsible to the principal for instruction within his department. This organization has been carried out rather completely in each of the schools, in some to greater extent than in others. These six department heads, with the principal, assistant principal, and the vocational counselors make up the instructional council of the school, which



meets weekly. Through these heads and with their aid and co-operation the principal is enabled to carry on very effective, if less formal, training of teachers. Departmental meetings of teachers are called by the heads as occasion warrants. The heads also work in close co-operation with the general subject supervisors of the city. In a large school it is a physical impossibility for the principal to keep in intimate touch with the problems of every teacher, but the device of the department organization, with frequent meetings of the school instructional council has worked so far with rather gratifying success. The heads have been chosen because of peculiar fitness, and practically without exception have had special training in the philosophy of the intermediate school.

The general teachers' meeting has been of value in the teacher training program, but largely in an inspirational way rather than in any specific detail. It has in general been more devoted to details of administration which are common to all types of school organization rather than to the intermediate school in particular.

Another device, very helpful in building up an *esprit de corps*, might be mentioned. All intermediate teachers are organized into the Intermediate Section of the Detroit Teachers' Association, and at least once each year a get-together of the section is held, a banquet is served, and the meeting is addressed by some one of national prominence in the junior high-school movement. This practice has served yearly to renew our faith and give us new zest in meeting our problems. To summarize:

The training program has these characteristics:

1. The rather intensive training of the leaders in the various schools through specific courses.
2. The offering of a rather wide variety of courses in principles and method which teachers have taken voluntarily:
  - a. To secure credit toward degrees.
  - b. To secure promotion.
3. The utilization of the supervisory council of general subject-supervisors of the city.
4. The intensive use of the departmental organization within the schools.

A. LAURA MCGREGOR, VICE-PRINCIPAL OF WASHINGTON JUNIOR HIGH SCHOOL, ROCHESTER, NEW YORK, read a paper, entitled, *A Program of Educational Guidance in the Junior High School*.

A PROGRAM OF EDUCATIONAL GUIDANCE IN THE  
JUNIOR HIGH SCHOOLA. LAURA MCGREGOR, VICE-PRINCIPAL, WASHINGTON JUNIOR HIGH  
SCHOOL, ROCHESTER, NEW YORK

*Guidance a Necessity in th Junior High School.*—Whenever a school establishes a program of differentiated curricula, guidance in choice and re-choice of course becomes imperative. Curricula do not differ in their basic elements. All junior high-school courses,—academic, technical, commercial, and industrial,—include certain fundamental subjects which form the common background of general information and shared culture. In their points of differentiation, however, these courses are vocational in outlook, and the choice of curriculum in the junior high school is therefore a first, though by no means a final, vocational choice. If children of junior high school age are to choose wisely, with a full understanding of the significance of their choices, the function of guidance becomes an obligation which the school must assume.

*Educational Guidance a Phase of Vocational Guidance.*—Educational guidance is one phase of vocational guidance. Vocational guidance has been defined as a continuous process designed to help the individual to choose, to plan his preparation for, to enter upon, and to make progress in an occupation. A well co-ordinated plan of guidance includes instruction, counsel, placement, and supervision in employment. Placement and supervision are properly functions, not of the school, but of a central agency under the control of, or definitely co-operating with, the school authorities. The school is concerned chiefly with instructional and advisory work in guidance.

*Instructional Guidance.*—Instructional guidance in general parallels the work of the school courses, and serves to interpret to the child the direct training experiences of his school life in terms of their vocational outlook. Prior to choice of course, a sixty-minute period once a week is set aside in all class programs for a definite study of the various curricula of the school, the contents of each, the educational outlets of each, and the vocational fields toward which each points. In classes where the initial choice has been made, the guidance hour is devoted to a further study of occupations and of the opportunities for training afforded by higher schools and institutions.

All classes take under consideration certain fundamental economic and ethical problems. A series of guidance lessons should function in increased desire for education, in broader vocational knowledge, and in the establishment of ethical attitudes essential to true success.

The methods of the guidance class are similar to those of the social studies period. Explanation, discussion, socialized presentation, reference reading, and individual and committee reports are the usual procedures. Charts, trade magazines, local bulletins, trips, interviews, and exhibits of products and processes serve to establish vital contacts. The work is preferably carried on by one or more school counselors who divide their time between class guidance and individual counseling.

*Advisory Guidance.*—Advisory guidance or individual counseling necessitates an intensive study of the individual. This can only be accomplished through the co-operation and interest of the entire faculty of the school. The home-room teacher, the class instructors, the club director see the child in different relations and aspects and their contributions are essential if the counselor is to proceed wisely. In addition, the counselor, through the use of questionnaires, through examination of intelligence and achievement records, through personal conference, and through home visiting, endeavors to round out the available knowledge of the child with those details necessary to a sympathetic understanding of his problems. Children and parents welcome the assistance of a trained counselor in planning educational and vocational training, and the counselor serves to establish a close connection between the school and the community. The school counselors are actively concerned with educational placement and adjustment, with prevention of school leaving whenever possible, and with the study of all that relates to the progress of the individual child.

*Guidance in Washington Junior High School, Rochester, N. Y.*  
—In the Washington Junior High School, Rochester, N. Y., two guidance counselors carry on the work here described. They are assisted by four visiting counselors who are teachers of other subjects but who have time reserved in their programs for individual investigations through personal conference and home visiting. Together these six teachers form a guidance bureau that unifies and centralizes all the efforts of the school to understand the individual, and to help him to understand his educational environment and the vocational world toward which he is shaping his course.

## SENIOR HIGH-SCHOOL CONFERENCE

*Schools of Five Hundred or Less*

ROOM M 21, HOTEL BREVOORT

The chairman was JOHN CALVIN HANNA of the State Department of Public Instruction, Illinois.

MR. R. W. WARD, PRINCIPAL OF HIGH SCHOOL, MT. CLEMENS, MICHIGAN, read his paper, *The Development and Control of Extra Curriculum Activities Among Girls*.

### THE DEVELOPMENT AND CONTROL OF EXTRA CURRICULUM ACTIVITIES AMONG GIRLS

R. W. WARD, PRINCIPAL OF HIGH SCHOOL, MOUNT CLEMENS,  
MICHIGAN

Three years ago it seemed advisable to discontinue interscholastic activities for girls in our high school. Our reasons for doing so were:

1. They seemed to reach but a very few of our girl students.
2. The strength of girls was often over-taxed in contests.
3. Interscholastic competition did not develop ladylike qualities in girls and contributed little to the general aims of the school.

Our action in discontinuing all interscholastic contests met with some opposition among those few girls students who had been active and a very few succeeded in arousing their parents to protest. This opposition soon gave way to expectation that interclass contests would be a satisfactory substitute.

The interclass competition did not come up to expectations. There was a general apathy among girls who resented the wide publicity and interest in boys' activities. The girls were plainly dissatisfied to appear in preliminaries and not receive their due share of recognition.

This situation aroused the interest of Miss Bessie M. Camburn, one of our oldest teachers in point of service. She began a thorough study of the problem, becoming acquainted with efforts being made in other schools. She found the plan in operation at the University of Chicago High School to be most adaptable to our situation. After

going over their plan very carefully and changing those things which it seemed could be improved and adding features successful elsewhere, we decided upon a plan and took steps for its inauguration.

It is the purpose of this paper to present our experience in starting and carrying on the program we adopted. While our plan is yet in the experimental stage, it has been received with such favor and is developing our aims so well that its merit is beyond question.

The plan was put into operation at the beginning of this school year. In preparation for the beginning, Miss Camburn and the writer had a series of conferences last year in which details of the program were developed. In May, the following bulletin was given to all our girls:

#### BULLETIN

All girls in M. C. H. S. will compete in 1923-24 for major and minor awards for distinction in scholarship, school activities, and the formation of health habits.

Two hundred points shall be required for a minor award and 400 points for a major award. The accumulation of these points may take place during three years of the high-school course.

The schedule of points which will be given during 1923-24 is subject to change thereafter, and will probably be lowered. It is therefore advantageous to accumulate points during the first year while the provisions are generous.

In addition, every girl in school will be a member of one or two groups to be designated as IMP and PEP respectively. A girl retains her membership in the group during her entire high school course.

A silver cup will be awarded each year to the winning group which shall be determined by adding the scores of all girls in the group with an additional bonus of 100 points for winning the final game in each sport.

#### SCHEDULE 1923-24

Health Habit Record (score 85)—1 point weekly.

Hiking (20 miles)—1 point weekly.

Swimming 150 yards (still water)—10 points. (Arrangement for test to be made with Miss Bradfield before October 15.)

Hockey—Class team, 5 points; 10 points. (Student must play in a majority of games during season.)



Basket-Ball—Imp or Pep, 10 points; Class team, 5 points.

Baseball—Class team, 5 points; Imp or Pep, 10 points.

Interscholastic forensics—For each participation, 5 points.

Honor roll—For each appearance, 10 points.

Good scholarship roll—For each appearance, 5 points.

In addition to the means of securing points listed above, the faculty members of the Girls' Club board may recommend to the Girls' Club board any student who has achieved distinction in other activities not provided for above. Upon the approval of the Girls' Club board, such students may be awarded any number of points up to a maximum of 100 which may be recommended by the faculty members of the board.

### Daily Health Habit Record—Imp or Pep (Cross Out One)

Name \_\_\_\_\_ Week Ending \_\_\_\_\_ 192

	SLEEP		TEETH		Outdoor Exercise 1 Hour	3 Regular Meals	UNCOOKED FRUIT or VEG.			Water 6 Glass.	Bath	Elimination Without Medicine	Coughs Colds or Sore Throat	TOTAL
	9 Hours	Windows	A. M.	P. M.			A. M.	Noon	P. M.					
Points	2	1	1	1	2	1	1	1	1	1	1	2	Minus 2	
Fri.														
Sat.														
Sun.														
Mon.														
Tues.														
Wed.														
Thurs.														
Total														

It should be noted that it was our purpose to incorporate all activities into one program. Our point system was devised in order to encourage diversified and well rounded activities. We hoped to arouse individual interest in not only one activity, such as athletics, but scholarship, health habits, et cetera.

At the time the bulletin was issued, a meeting of all girls was called and the details explained with notice being given that competition would start at the beginning of the following year. Shortly after this, all girls in the high school drew, by lot, their membership

in Imp or Pep, the two major competing groups. Imp and Pep then elected captains, devised yells, songs, et cetera, in preparation for action.

It had been decided to have six major committees within the general organization which had been designated as the Girls' Club. These were to be social service, publicity, scholarship, social athletic, and refreshment committees. The purpose and work of each committee was explained to all the girls and they were asked to sign up for the committee of their choice. A faculty sponsor was selected by the adviser of girls for each committee. The members of each committee elected their own student chairman. These faculty women and student chairman make up a governing board of the club. This board meets monthly and functions very much like a board of directors in any organization.

The club as a whole meets monthly for a program or social meeting. For instance, in September, the club gave a mother's tea, which was attended by three-fourths of the mothers of high-school girls. Attendance was encouraged through a contest in bringing mothers between Imp and Pep. At that meeting the subject of dress for the school girl was discussed. The following suggestions were adopted:

#### SUGGESTIONS FOR SIMPLIFIED DRESS OFFERED BY THE GIRLS' CLUB OF MOUNT CLEMENS HIGH SCHOOL

One of the purposes of the Girls' Club of Mount Clemens High School is that of furthering a democratic spirit within the school. This cannot exist when girls feel ill at ease because they are not so elaborately dressed as their neighbors. The club proposes the following regulations in the interest of dress which will be healthful, suitable, simple, and refined:

Dress: Simple and inconspicuous woolen or cotton dresses. Velvet and silk dresses are not approved. A possible exception may be made in favor of very simply made pongee dresses or simple dresses of dark taffeta or crepe. Middies or plain waists worn with woolen or cotton skirts of modest length and fullness. Sleeves not shorter than half way between the elbow and shoulder. A minimum of simple inconspicuous jewelry.

Shoes: Neat low-heeled oxfords or high shoes. Conspicuous colored shoes, and satin shoes not to be worn. Plain inconspicuous

stockings; cotton stockings to be considered in better taste than very thin silk stockings.

Hair: Simple, neat arrangement with no conspicuous pins or combs. Bobbed hair to be moderately curled and to be combed and arranged in private. Entire absence of rouge. No lip stick. Powder in moderation, but to be used in private.

A girl who cannot carry out these suggestions will be considered as unwilling to co-operate in the furtherance of the aims and ideals for which the Girls' Club of Mount Clemens High School stands.

In December the club entertained all the girls of the city who were to enter high school at the beginning of the second semester. In November an illustrated lecture on art was given by the educational director of an art institute. The meeting this month was devoted to a reception of new girls and the entertainment of out-of-town guests at a noon-day luncheon.

The results of our plan have been gratifying. Girls are showing a real democratic spirit. Those matters which affect the social life of the school are brought before the Girls' Club board, which gives its co-operation in getting the matter before all girls in the high school.

There seems to be no limit to what may be accomplished under the plan. Already many things have been done to help the school and individuals. The scholarship committee has devised a plan whereby all girls are competing for a cup to be awarded at the end of the year. In promoting this contest, the better students are coaching the poorer ones. The social service committee has served as the agency for providing clothing to needy children in the community. Attention has been given to girls who are ill or in trouble. Incoming students have been welcomed, and made to feel at home. The upper class girls have acted as advisers for those entering the lower classes. Our honor and scholarship rolls have become the largest in proportion to our student body, that they have been during the five years.

May I quote from an article written by Miss Camburn, "Altogether we feel that we have devised a means whereby we are giving the girls the training which comes from working together, and we are making it possible for them, by their own initiative, to solve the problems of our school community life. They seem to be doing, this last so effectively that one is tempted to indulge in a little Utopian dreaming as to what the high school of the future might be like when we

shall have learned to open wide the flood gates of repression, and to release in our high schools, the powerful forces of good will and of high hearted altruism for which at present we provide far too little opportunity for expression."

In conclusion, may I offer a word of warning to those who contemplate making a similar experiment. It is unwise to attempt to transfer any plan in all its details to your situation. A study should be made of what is being done elsewhere; those features, which seem to meet the local needs should be tried through a very definite program. It is essential that some matters relative to the teacher placed in charge of the work, be given attention. She must have time to devote to the task. Our present adviser of girls teaches three classes. The adviser should have a deep sympathy for and keen understanding of girls' problems. She must have a personality which will command the respect and confidence of girls. And she must be tactful, courteous, and considerate in her relations with other faculty members. Her salary should be commensurate with her teaching load and added burdens. Next to the principal, she should become the most important and useful person in the high-school organization.

MR. C. C. KATTERJOHN, PRINCIPAL OF HIGH SCHOOL, BOONVILLE, INDIANA, read his paper, *The High-School Faculty Meeting*.

## THE HIGH SCHOOL FACULTY MEETING

PRINCIPAL C. C. KATTERJOHN, HIGH SCHOOL,  
BOONVILLE, INDIANA

Because of the very nature of secondary education, with its democratic tendencies, with its social variations, with its adolescent problems, with its vocational needs, with the scientific and commercial demands, the problem facing the school authorities and especially the high-school faculty demand a frequent meeting of all teachers and many conferences within a department and between principal and teacher. But especially in the high-school faculty meeting should we find a co-operative basis for the study of the needed development of high-school students.

An understanding must be arrived at between principal and faculty before proper co-operation can be entered into. I have felt that the relationship between teachers and principal should be a



similar relationship as that which exists between the President of the United States and his cabinet. In this the teachers, as the cabinet, offer suggestions and ideas, leaving to the principal the final judgment as to the method of introduction. This may be arranged in our larger school between department heads and in smaller schools by members of the entire faculty. This gives the teachers an opportunity to express their educational ideas, and an exchange of this kind promotes growth.

Coming again to the discussion of faculty meetings, we find that faculty meetings are often ill-prepared, that they fall into a type of routine work, such as questions of discipline, or they are composed of a stereotyped study of some professional book, which is not well applied to the practical work of the teachers; or a discussion of such subjects which are foreign to the better work of the school and thereby do not prove interesting or beneficial to the teachers or the school.

Because of the poor preparation, faculty meetings very often fail to accomplish their purpose. This is the fault, largely, of the principal. Faculty meetings should be organized and carried on through careful planning and should vary from time to time. They should be carried on to meet any and all of the following topics, and probably more; namely, (a) administration of school routine, (b) constant renewing of fundamental principles of secondary education, (c) continuous study of new educational movements, (d) continuous proposed changes in the evolution of the school, and (e) meeting to consider miscellaneous topics.

Special work on these topics should be so organized that they will be kept constantly in the minds of the teachers. They should be made the main topics of the faculty meetings according to a well devised plan. Occasionally one topic should cover a series of meetings, but in such a case a small part of each meeting should be devoted to the other topics enumerated above.

Under the first topic—administration of school routine—principals should devote some time and set aside a few meetings for this work at the beginning of the year. Especially in case both faculty and principal be new. Munroe suggests that this routine work should be carried on through mimeographed direction, but I find that careful explanation of the school routine question is frequently necessary. This, then may be followed by mimeographed



directions. Failure to attend to the administration of school routine often results in the wrecking of a good many high-school programs. In this one regard plans well formulated may be so organized that they become a stabilizing power of tradition to both faculty and pupils. The one danger under this head is that faculty meetings may fall entirely into this class. This may be avoided by careful planning and firm guidance.

When a school has been firmly placed in its channel and is running smoothly, many of the teachers' meetings should be devoted to the review of the fundamental principles of secondary education. The reason for this is apparent. Young teachers with a great deal of theory need a bit of the practical side of teaching, while old teachers may have permitted themselves to go too far the other way. These principals should take into consideration to some extent the principles of elementary education on one hand and collegiate education or vocational guidance on the other. If this phase of our meetings is neglected, the teaching becomes formal and the work of the school lacks its effectiveness. This division of work should be carefully outlined. Subjects should be given; such as, general objectives of secondary education; permanency of learning as applied to daily tests and reviews; individual differences among students; problem solving; standardization of grades, etc. It would seem best to devote a series of meetings to topics such as these, giving them, first, intensive study—then, giving them periodical review and new and practical applications. In the intensive study of such topics it is advisable to take a general view of the topic and then give its concrete application to each of the several departments of the school. By a comparative study of all departments, a better school understanding will be arrived at. It should be made clear that teachers absorbed entirely in the technique of their own department fail to recognize general problems and aims of education prove ineffective in their own departments. Methods of carrying on these meetings may vary, such as assignments to individual teachers of certain principles; often the principal himself may review the leading considerations applying to the topic being discussed and the teachers presenting concrete examples taken from daily work; or by a committee of teachers working together.

Along with the study of principles and application of the principles of secondary education should be a consideration of new move-

ments in education, such as "supervision of study" and the "junior high school." A high-school faculty when studying such a topic learns reasons for its growth and its aims and problems concerning it. They begin to study it in the light of possible adoption and application within a system. This is especially desirable when new movements are being considered for adoption by the school. And it may be said that it is very undesirable to attempt to adopt a new policy without the teachers in a system having become thoroughly acquainted with its features. The above deals with the after-professional training of teachers. Beginning teachers, unless they have had excellent practice teaching, fail in their study of professional subjects to realize the importance of them while in college and sometimes consider them so much professional theory, that cannot be applied. Every faculty meeting should add something to the professional knowledge of the teacher.

In addition to the above, teachers' meetings should take into consideration many other miscellaneous topics, such as reports and discussions of recent teachers' conventions and the discussion of certain topics, which may have been presented at the conventions. Plans and reports on visiting days would also come under this heading. Possibly some teacher while visiting in other schools may have something beneficial to offer to the school, as a whole.

The resultant effect of such a plan will constantly keep the faculty alert in the whole field of education. To aid this work there should be a professional library available for reference and magazines covering the various fields of education. It is very desirous that principals, if they have not already done so, lay the foundation for the establishment of a professional library which would be accessible to all teachers.

A few words might be said regarding the principal and his duties in outlining and carrying out the above plan. He or she must necessarily be well acquainted with the principles of secondary education so he may guide properly and he must be thoroughly acquainted with educational problems. He must be acquainted with new movements in the field of secondary education and be ever pointing his teachers onward. In short, he must be a leader in professional thought.

A word about the teachers and the meeting. It must be recognized that the programs of these meetings will vary according to

the teachers, according to the curriculum and according to the needs of the school. We must recognize that we have many types of teachers, among which are:

*First.*—Those who have been long in the service.

*Second.*—Those who are fresh from college.

*Third.*—Those who are new in the school system.

*Fourth.*—Those whose object is not to stay long in the profession and whose objects are not entirely of the professional spirit.

All of these types must be correlated and their thought directed to the best interest of the school. Some may not recognize the modern conception of the present day high schools, others may have had more or less practice teaching, some none and others without much professional training. To each and all must be given first a clear and definite understanding that secondary education is primarily designed to acquaint and initiate young people into a better understanding of the environment and civilization in which they have been reared as children and to prepare them for intelligent participation in it as adults. In late years this has come to mean with a certain definiteness a series of interlocking objectives; namely, health, citizenship, ethical character, vocation, worthy use of leisure and command of fundamentals.

The high-school faculty is not well enough organized nor has it the power to meet this aim of secondary education. This is due perhaps to a few of the following causes:

1. Departmental specialization which seemingly inundates the teacher.
2. Departmental aims are not produced with a recognition of other departments.
3. Local school legislation is not left in their hands.

These are things that needs must be faced and handled, so far as it is possible for the faculty to do so.

To summarize—Faculty meetings must be planned to meet the need of the pupils, give the teachers an incentive for co-operative work, and to place the school in good working order. To do these things, meetings must be periodical—weekly, if necessary. They must vary; they must give the teachers an opportunity to work and must be carefully planned.

The principal must bear in mind that the teachers' meeting is next in importance to supervision and is the place where good administration begins; that through these meetings the policies of the school are shaped. Second—here professional interest is stimulated—and corrected if in error—and both new teachers and old develop accordingly.

## TEACHERS' MEETINGS

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MR. J. W. CASTELO, PRINCIPAL OF COMMUNITY HIGH SCHOOL OF LA MOILLE, ILLINOIS, read his paper, *On the Adaptation of the Smaller High School to the Demands of Modern Life*.

### ON THE ADAPTATION OF THE SMALLER HIGH SCHOOL TO THE DEMANDS OF MOD- ERN LIFE

PRINCIPAL J. W. CASTELO, COMMUNITY HIGH SCHOOL,  
LA MOILLE, ILLINOIS

Well established commercial concerns in advertising their products admonish the public to beware of imitations. This admonition might well be adopted as a slogan by the administrators of small high schools, for it is not by imitating the curricula or methods of large high schools that small high schools are made to serve, but it is the ability to adapt their curricula and methods to the needs of their communities and to modern life, that warrants the very existence of small high schools and makes the educators connected with them worthy of their hire.

In too many instances attempts are made to make the small high school a large high school in miniature, without either studying or heeding the demands or the needs of the community. As a result, such schools suffer in reputation at home and abroad, and it is little wonder that those schools draw adverse criticism, if they attract any positive attention at all, or are given little consideration by a group of school men who think largely in terms of the large high school. An institution like an individual must merit respect in order to command it, and second editions of either institutions or individuals seldom possess much that is meritorious.

Happily for the cause of education, many of the small high schools are controlled by boards of education made up of forward



looking men and women who have been brought to realize that in order for the schools to serve the community, administrators and instructors in these schools must have some knowledge of scientific curriculum making and be in sympathy with the community and the problems of the community in which they market their service.

In the adapting of a curriculum to the demands of modern life, there exists no doubt in the minds of students of education, that superintendents and instructors should have in mind certain general and certain specific objectives in education and be able to employ intelligence tests, educational measurements, and school marks in determining individual differences of pupils for the purpose of classification of pupils as well as to determine in a manner the type of instruction by which pupils are capable of profiting. However, while it is not to be denied that a first-hand knowledge of the technique that a progressive educator is presumed to possess is of inestimable value, the true value may be fairly accurately measured by the ability of educators to translate this technique in terms of boys and girls and in community values. Subject matter and instruction must be adapted to pupils to meet individual differences and the economic outlook for pupils; the personnel of the student groups must be studied; and the needs and the life of the community itself must not only be given every consideration, but they should be investigated, and perhaps to a limited degree catered to, that the community may be best served. To serve the community as such is one of the functions of all high schools and it is the small high school's golden opportunity ("Golden" is employed here advisedly, as the tax payer, standing in the offing is always to be considered).

Adapting a curriculum to the demands of modern life necessitates an adaptation of subject matter and methods also. Accordingly it is essential that superintendents and instructors in the small high school be cognizant of the fact that experts in the various traditional high-school subjects through their state and national organizations are advocating and recommending that their respective subjects be reorganized, and furthermore, that these experts admit and discuss the needs for reorganization of their respective subjects. The needs and reasons for reorganization as expressed by these organizations through their committee reports, are so general that teachers may sometimes wonder just what value an acquaintance with these re-

ports may have for a local situation ; but if they have no other value than to impress upon the mind of the average teacher (usually of limited experience in the small high school) that we are still pioneering in the educational game, and that experts in their subjects are letting matters concerning reorganization and improvement of subject matter engage their attention—that value alone is sufficient reason for teachers to keep in touch with these movements in education.

It is of more importance, however, as to what and in what amount, certain traditional subjects should be offered by small high schools. For example, while none except a few radicals or uninformed ultra-practical individuals question the place of foreign languages in the secondary schools—yet it is perhaps more speculative than scientific as to how much foreign language should be offered in the small high schools or whether any at all should be offered. As long as some colleges require a certain amount of foreign language for entrance to certain courses, it is imperative that small high schools offer at least one foreign language for that reason if for no other. As for students who expect to pursue college courses for which no foreign language is required, and for those not expecting to enter college, foreign languages should be elective and are in the vast majority of small high schools. Were foreign languages not elective in these schools the greatly increased attendance in the last decade would not have resulted. It is quite generally accepted that no considerable portion of the small high-school community is benefitted to any great extent by the teaching of foreign languages as such in the high school of the community, and no pupil should be kept from high school through fear or dislike of them.

What has been stated herein in regard to foreign languages may apply with a few modifications to mathematics. The last two decades have witnessed a tendency to depart from the traditional rigid divisions of mathematics, and an effort has been made to organize them into a psychological composite whole. The fact that this new method of organization tends to give the pupil an idea of the whole field of mathematics in a limited period is one of the best arguments presented in favor of the method. It may also possess considerable prognostic value. Without doubt it works into the scheme of the junior high school, theoretically at least. Some pupils can not cope successfully with mathematics and it is doubtful whether more than one year of mathematics should be required in

small high schools organized on the 8-4 plan. If additional requirements in mathematics keep pupils from entering these high schools, any argument favoring such requirements is unsound from the standpoint of social needs.

For years in the secondary schools, English has been given its head, so to speak, but within the last few years various organizations of English teachers have advocated the reorganization of that subject. This may be attributed to criticism from without their own ranks as much as to the demands of modern life. These organizations have but little that is new to offer in their recommendations and fail utterly to show why so much time of the high school should be given over to English as a subject. Here the small high school is in evidence in that it sees the necessity of promoting the co-operation of teachers in all departments of the school that pupils may be rendered able to use good English, realizing that a command of English is never acquired in English classes alone. After all the method is the thing.

As to the adaptation of methods to the demands of modern life, it is patent that aims determine methods. In many small high schools it is not possible to divide pupils into sections according to individual differences. Especially does this apply to required or "core" subjects, and here the "C" pupil should be led to become a good "C" pupil and should be held more for minimum essentials than are his fellows of superior mentality, especially if the "C" pupil is not preparing for college and the superior pupil is. It is possible that the "C" pupil may do "A" work in a vocational subject and that the "A" pupil may do "C" work in a vocational subject. What is nearer the real condition though is that the "C" student occasionally does "A" work in vocational subjects while the "A" student rarely falls as low as "C" in vocational subjects. This fact indicates clearly that the amount of subject matter pupils are held for, and the method of presentation rather than the subject matter itself, is what should be stressed in classes in the small high schools. If this is done no group will suffer as the small per cent of gain that is shown when groups are taught in different sections (determined by individual differences), is insignificant compared with the administrative and economic losses. The small high school pupils do not suffer on account of the limited number of pupils or from economic reasons limiting the number of teachers, and, as a

matter of course, the curricula, to the extent some educators assume. It is neither a sound economic or educational policy to offer what can not be done well, and the small high school is striving to show results by concerning itself with its own problems—generalizing where generalization is needed and desired, and specializing where specialization serves social needs the best, always mindful that if possible pupils should be led to have a comprehensive idea of the fact that their immediate environment is but ancillary to a world environment.

The small high school occupies an important position in the community as a unifying force. The title, community high school, that applies to so many small high schools, is not a mere happy phrase hit upon by educators, but it expresses literally what these school are. Closer to the people of all classes than are the large high schools, these community high schools exert an influence for good upon the people, directly and indirectly, and are rapidly becoming the social clearance houses of their communities as well as serving their communities in economic ways.

Among some of the ways these schools are serving their communities, the practical application of the instruction received in agriculture may be prominently mentioned. Boys through their projects not only improve themselves but tend to raise the level of knowledge of agriculture in the entire community. Furthermore, these boys spray fruit trees, test soil, test corn, cull poultry, and in many ways assist patrons of the school, and as a result a benefit is bestowed upon the community that is felt and appreciated. Girls in the household economics department learn to sew and cook and are better prepared to become home-makers, and pupils from the commercial departments take their places in the offices of business men and contribute to the support of their families and themselves. As for those who enter college after graduating from the small high schools, the per cent of failures in the freshman year is probably no greater than among those from the large high schools, the general intelligence of the graduates from both types of school being the same. The graduates who enter college from the large high schools are of a more selective group, due to the fact that economic pressure in the larger centers makes it necessary for pupils from a certain type of home to leave school before graduation or immediately after and go to work, while a much larger per cent of pupils from the



same type of home in the rural communities, due to lower cost of living, are not affected by economic pressure and they graduate from the small high school and enter college. The very fact that one went to college once marked him as ambitious and possessed of superior ability, but attending college has to a certain degree become a fad.

Whether or not their students expect to enter college, one of the chief functions of small high schools is to develop leadership. Extra curriculum activities play an important part in this development but in this period of adjustment it is fully as essential that the faculty to recognize and acknowledge leadership be developed. A blind resignation to superiority is not desired, nor is the mere recognition of it all that is necessary. The acknowledgment of ability in others to lead is the very beginning of co-operation. Pupils who are not as gifted mentally as are others can be taught that the opportunity to co-operate with superior people is a privilege, and that willingness to co-operate is a virtue.

It is the purpose of this paper to show that a school can be a small school and at the same time be a good school. It is not so important that educators serving in small high schools be able to oppose or to defend the theory of serial development or the theory of concomitant development; nor is it vitally necessary that these educators be conversant with either the expert opinion—specialized curriculum view, or the functional-behavioristic view, except that knowledge of these things help to anticipate conditions that may be found to exist. The task incumbent on these educators and all educators in secondary schools is to realize that in all communities there are problems, and that the fact that these problems obtain demands that a solution for them be sought. To attempt the solution of these problems, sanely and vigorously is to serve.



SENIOR HIGH-SCHOOL CONFERENCE

*Five Hundred and Over  
Crystal Room, Hotel Sherman*

CHAIRMAN, LUCY L. W. WILSON, PRINCIPAL, SOUTH PHILADELPHIA  
HIGH SCHOOL FOR GIRLS, PHILADELPHIA

HOW CAN THE TEACHER BE BROUGHT TO EVALUATE  
HIMSELF AND TO DEVELOP THE EXPERI-  
MENTAL ATTITUDE

SUPERINTENDENT OF SCHOOLS, FRANK G. PICKELL, MONTCLAIR,  
NEW JERSEY

It will be admitted without argument, I think, that the teacher's training is not finished when he has completed his collegiate education. Much remains for the teacher to learn in service. Teaching then and for the first time becomes real.

Improvement of the teaching service is uppermost in the minds of all of us who are supervisors and indeed it is uppermost in the minds of many teachers. Dr. Rugg states as one of his prime theses that the first step toward self-improvement is self-appraisal. We strive for perfection in those things which hold our interest. To secure self-improvement we must take the necessary steps to center the teacher's attention upon self-improvement. But self-appraisal is not necessarily the best means by which to center attention upon improvement. If by self-appraisal one means conscious effort to study one's traits it may or may not be productive of results. Personality is such a personal thing and so elusive that I think we would do better to minimize it in attempting to help the teachers develop an experimental attitude, and emphasize the things which constitute good teaching. In practice, we select those teachers who in our opinion possess the vivacity, the tact, the sympathy, the interest in children, and the love of the work, to enable them to teach without friction groups of pupils in the class room. We may be able to change these personal factors, and sometimes to improve the teacher in this respect. But to develop an experimental attitude we must create in the mind of the teacher the questioning attitude toward methods and the material taught. In this, care must be taken that the teacher may

not lose self-confidence and thus become less effective. Nothing is more productive of personalities in education than a discussion with a teacher of her personal traits. This kind of supervision can rarely be effective. It is better to go at the task indirectly through the kind of teaching she does.

The best means of developing the experimental attitude and hence of securing real training in service is to check the teachers' work in terms of standard tests, to call into question their methods and plans of work, to rate them in terms of simple, concrete points, and above all, to develop salary schedules under which advancement in salary is made dependent upon results and upon study or travel.

Nothing is more certainly productive of study and reflection on the teacher's part than to question her methods and at the same time ask whether she is familiar with other and proved methods of doing the work as well or better. This does not imply that the supervisor's attitude should be critical, nor, as has been said, that the impression need necessarily be created that the teacher is doing poor work. She is being aroused to the fact that experimental evidence and the results of this scientific study of methods point the way to greater effectiveness.

Nothing stirs teachers more than the use of standard tests, and an analysis of the findings. Such tests are effective means of arousing teachers to study and to experiment that they may improve the results of their work.

Rating scales are mostly too intricate and too detailed to be practical. The teacher does not take them seriously and neither does the supervisor. Such scales are more productive of rating upon general impression than may be imagined. A simple rating scale developed by the supervisor or superintendent together with the teachers is a better approach. It should cover just a few of the more important and measurable points in instruction, and the teachers' ability to co-operate with his or her fellow teachers and the administrative force. In Montclair, New Jersey, we have recently developed a salary schedule based to a certain degree upon merit. Four degrees of merit are recognized: Superior, calling for special recognition; good, calling for normal increase; passable, calling for no increase in salary; and unsatisfactory, calling for a discontinuance of service unless such teacher is protected by the tenure act. At once it was nec-

essary to agree upon a plan by which the merit of teachers could be more or less accurately determined. The teachers with the superintendent agreed upon the following factors to be measured: (a) educational qualifications; (b) professional improvement; (c) teaching power; (d) class-room discipline; (e) participation in extra-class room school activities and interests; (f) the influence of the teacher upon school children.

After the final conference the teachers, through their committee, asked to have added this point: (g) co-operation with teachers and administrators.

The concrete methods by which these points shall be weighed are yet to be determined. The work is now in the hands of a committee of teachers who are in agreement as to the points and who are co-operating in completing a simple scale for measuring merit.

This brings me to the last point of this discussion. To secure training in service, teachers must receive encouragement for work worthily done. Sympathetic, stimulating supervision will do more to create this experimental attitude we are discussing, and more to encourage teachers to improve themselves than all other means save one,—the right kind of salary schedule. Write a salary schedule which places a premium upon good work and which offers adequate monetary recognition for study, and the majority of the teachers will become students of educational problems.

There has been too great a tendency to disregard merit. The public is willing to pay good salaries to good teachers, but it wants the high salaries to go only to good teachers. One cause of hesitancy on the public's part to meet our demand for high salaries lies in our unwillingness to distinguish between the good teacher and the poor one; between superiority and mediocrity.

## JUNIOR-COLLEGE CONFERENCE

*Fraternity Room, Great Northern Hotel*

CHAIRMAN, CLARENCE T. RICE, PRINCIPAL, HIGH SCHOOL, KANSAS  
CITY, KANSAS

## THE JUNIOR-COLLEGE MOVEMENT IN CALIFORNIA

W. W. KEMP, DEAN OF THE SCHOOL OF EDUCATION, UNIVERSITY OF  
CALIFORNIA

The state of California seems to be an especially fertile field for the development of the junior college. Public education has been recognized as such an obvious necessity and is such an established fact in the short life of the state, that privately-endowed, smaller colleges have not been developed as in many other states, thus depriving this state of the important service which such institutions offer. On the other hand, the great size of the state and its diversity of interests and geographical conditions make it essential that the state system of education provide for the proper development of these interests and conditions, not only by the training of that fine professional class for which the larger university centers are responsible, but by the offering of other opportunities of limited collegiate training in more diverse localities.

The junior-college movement in California has passed the first decade of its history, and is now in the third year of the second decade. The junior colleges have developed from the postgraduate courses which, during these years, have been offered by some of the larger high schools of the state. The institution, therefore, has been viewed as the extension upward of secondary education, and is a definite outgrowth of the high school. It came into being as an attempt to meet the needs of those students who, having graduated from the high school, found themselves unable to continue their education in college or university. The pioneer in this new field is our present state commissioner of secondary education, Mr. A. C. Olney, who developed the first junior college at Fresno in the year 1910, and a year thereafter established the second junior college at Santa Barbara. There are at present twenty-two such colleges, though the total that have been established is more than thirty. Four have been discontinued

due either to lack of interest because prematurely started, or to lack of sufficient assessable wealth in the district. For some years the city of Los Angeles maintained four junior-college departments in as many city high schools. With the conversion of the Los Angeles State Normal School into the Southern Branch of the University of California and the organization of a lower division, or junior-college, program therein, these four junior college departments were discontinued. Within the state there are also four private and denominational junior colleges, consideration of which is not included in this paper.

Early in the movement an indiscriminate number of the institutions was threatened. High schools of any considerable size took notice and began to lay plans until it became evident that the state must set up definite conditions preliminary to organization. Hence our present statutes governing the establishment of junior colleges.

As early as 1917 the California legislature passed a law making it necessary for a high-school district to show an assessed valuation of \$3,000,000 or more before its board of trustees could be empowered to establish postgraduate or junior-college courses in the high school. This valuation is probably too low, but has acted as a check on over ambitious districts. A much more elaborate law was enacted in 1921. Under this law independent junior college districts can be formed with the proviso that the following requirements be met:

1. The district must show an average daily attendance of 400 high-school students.
2. The district must show an assessed valuation of \$10,000,000.
3. In order to maintain its standing, the junior college must have an average daily attendance of 75 students.

The same legislature added four other important measures. The first of these has made it possible, in those localities where there are state teachers' colleges, for high-school boards to contract with them for the establishing and maintaining of junior-college courses as the junior-college departments of said high schools. The second has permitted junior colleges and the University of California to enter into terms of affiliation under certain conditions. The third has made junior-college courses of study subject to the approval of the state board of education. And the fourth has added new features touching financial support. Under the old law the junior college is an in-



tegral part of the high school and receives the high-school minimum of state and county aid, and in addition is partly financed from district taxes. Under the new law (which, you will note, does not repeal the old law) independent junior-college districts may be established. Where this is done such district will receive \$2,000 as an initial grant from the state, and in addition, \$100 for each student in average daily attendance. The junior-college district must raise at least as much as the state provides, and there is no county junior-college tax. The junior-college board may establish a tuition tax for non-resident students, which, during the first year of the act, varies from nothing to \$200 per year. Junior-college boards may also collect for the attendance of students from other districts contiguous to their county. This act of 1921 may prove to be of great financial aid to junior colleges, as well as an impetus to the movement. But it must be added that getting started under the new law has its difficulties, there being no aid for the first year other than district taxation.

With these legal provisions in mind, the twenty-two junior colleges (twenty-three, if we include the Southern Branch of the University of California) may be classified. Seven of them represent the separate junior-college type, most of which have reorganized under the new law. Nine are junior-college departments of high schools, and six are junior-college departments of state teachers' colleges and at the same time junior-college departments of the high schools of their respective localities. (I may add parenthetically that all of the state teachers' colleges now offer junior-college courses, save that one located in San Francisco.) Eight of the twenty-two have entered into affiliation agreement with the University of California, the details of which I shall take the liberty of referring to in a succeeding page of this report.

The total enrollment in the junior colleges, as of November, 1923, amounts to 2,900 approximately. Again this does not include the 2,649 reported at the Southern Branch of the University of California as of the same date. By reference to the report of the superintendent of public instruction for the year ending June 30, 1920, one finds an enrollment of 1,442 (exclusive of the Southern Branch of the University of California). Comparing the figures 1,442 and 2,900, one is on first thought astounded at the showing of growth in a period of three years. The truth is, however, that most of the junior colleges have shown a rather moderate increase, while there has been a decrease

of enrollment in a few instances. A study of the situation shows that the marked difference in the totals for 1921 and 1923 is due to the new activities taken on by the state teachers' colleges in one of these two ways: (a) the establishment of junior-college courses as a new enterprise or (b) the effect of the transfer of the junior-college functions from high school to teachers' college making in the direction of an increased enrollment. The fact that the movement represents a moderate growth, certainly so in comparison with California's showing in high-school enrollment, is not an unfortunate circumstance, whether we view it from the standpoint of costs or from that of organization and curriculum. But that the junior college has already established for itself a permanent place among the public educational institutions of our state, no student of the problem will for a moment doubt. "Our community is solidly back of our junior college," writes a principal, and this is typical of the sentiment in ninety-five per cent of the communities.

An adequate study of the costs of this movement in California has yet to be made. The work is so interwoven with the high school on the one hand and the teachers' colleges on the other, that I am able to present only approximations as to cost per pupil attending. A recent inquiry sent to all the junior colleges brought answers from fourteen on the particular point in question. The median cost per student per year is \$270, the range of the estimates being from \$170 to \$438.21. Three institutions report the cost as \$350 or above, and three report it as less than \$200. Thus some localities spend more than two and one-half times as much per student as other localities. All the factors that enter into such a variance in costs cannot be stated here, but among them are: first, enrollment; second, diversity of courses of study; and third, the ability and willingness of local taxpayers to provide ample facilities. For the most part, it may be said, the junior colleges are costing only slightly in excess of high schools, and may have to increase their budgets in the interests of greater proportionate demands, such as books, laboratory equipment, and lighter instructional loads.

In comparison with the total numbers enrolled, the percentage of students who are graduated from year to year indicates that the junior college sets worthy standards for its diploma; at any rate that it is not lavish in the granting of the same. The proportion of graduates to enrollment is less than the proportion of high-school graduates to

the enrollment of junior and senior pupils in high schools. Where do junior-college graduates go? Frankly, they go to higher institutions of learning. Moreover, large numbers of students transfer from junior college to college or university at the end of one year. Our own Professor Lange has referred to the junior college as a movement that "will imply co-operation with the university, but not preparation for it."\* If that is to be the real goal, its attainment is far ahead. From recent reports sent me, it is safe to infer that two-thirds, if not three-fourths, of these students are headed toward the university or similar higher institutions, and will immediately, or at least within one year after graduation, enter upon a course of study in one of them.

A study of the courses offered in the junior colleges furnishes abundant reasons for the preceding statements. All of the colleges print bulletins or circulars, and include in them the offerings as to courses. I have examined these, and, in addition, have received answers to specific questions. The one outstanding course of study is that representing the first two years of a college of letters and science (or liberal arts). All of the junior colleges include this course. About half of the institutions attempt to offer work covering the first year requirements of other colleges in the University of California (agriculture, mining, engineering, chemistry, etc.) This can be done by adding only a few subjects to a letters and science course. Twelve junior colleges offer a vocational commercial course but report insignificant enrollment therein. In the state teachers' colleges large numbers of students complete the junior-college curriculum and then transfer to the professional education courses in the same schools, so that, in this sense, the teachers' colleges come nearer to meeting the demand that the junior college shall be something more than a stepping stone to the university than any others of the group. There are two exceptions to this, notably the Riverside Junior College and the Chaffey Junior College at Ontario. At the latter school, for example, the authorities have proceeded along four lines in addition to the academic branches, namely, music, home economics, commerce, and agriculture. These are vocational courses, and are attended by fully one-half of the students. Ontario being an agricultural community primarily and recognizing the lack of strictly vocational opportunities

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\* Lange, A. F. *The Junior College—What Manner of Child Shall This Be?* Sch. and Soc., Vol. 7, p. 213.

in many of the higher institutions, its citizens have supported the idea of a vocationalized junior college. As a result, that locality has one of the most interesting and successful institutions in the entire junior college movement. I believe the influence of the work at Chaffey Junior College will be carried into other communities in course of time. But it will take a long time. The general trend of interest still favors a junior college whose absorbing business is to open the upper gateways of a university curriculum. Not only will the citizens vote bonds and taxes on such an appeal, but school leaders are wont to favor it because of the fact that organized university curricula are immediately at hand to serve as guides in formulating junior college programs.

I have mentioned the junior college law of 1921. Its provisions touching the question of courses of study are as follows:

“Junior colleges may provide courses of instruction designed to prepare for higher institutions of learning, courses of instruction designed to prepare persons for agricultural, industrial, commercial, home-making, and other vocations, and such courses of instruction as may be deemed necessary to provide for the civic and liberal education of the community.”

In formulating the above provisions the state board of education has adopted certain resolutions submitted by the high-school principals' association:

- I. That all junior colleges offer the three following types of courses.
  1. The junior-certificate course for recommended graduates of high schools. (This course is based on the requirements of the lower division of the college of letters and science in the University of California.)
  2. The junior-college course open to *all* graduates of high schools regardless of recommendation, this course to stress health, citizenship, and home-making.
  3. Vocational courses open to anyone over eighteen years of age, this course to conform to community occupational needs.
- II. That the state board of education authorize the issuance of junior-college diplomas to those who have completed 64 hours of junior college subjects which shall include the following:



Subject A, University of California requirement in

English composition.....	no credit
English .....	6. hours
Physical Education and Health.....	4 hours
Social Sciences.....	6 hours
Science or Mathematics.....	6 hours
An arrangement of courses so as to show 20 hours of work in one department.	

From the provisions just quoted, it may be seen that the California junior colleges are open to high-school graduates whether recommended or not. They may even admit non-high school graduates, provided they are eighteen years of age and wish to pursue vocational courses only. Actual practice shows that there are comparatively few non-high-school graduates enrolled, and that the junior colleges of the state thus far in their development have been devoted very largely to the training of students who are looking toward advanced college work.

From time to time the University of California has made a study of the scholarship records of entrants from the two year junior-college courses for purposes of comparison with similar records of students on the Berkeley campus. The results are by no means to the discredit of the junior-college graduates. Such records vary through the years and with different types of students from different junior colleges. This is obvious. The fact remains, however, that the university has not suffered a lowering of its standards, contrary to avowed fears in some of the university departments in the early stages of the movement and to still lingering doubts on the part of a few of the departments.

Various articles on California junior colleges have appeared in current educational magazines, but in none of them has the relationship between junior colleges and the state university been considered. This aspect of the work, in my opinion, deserves some attention. The idea of the junior college as an integral part of the secondary-school system of the state accords with the distinction made for many years past at the university between the university proper and the lower division courses, the latter corresponding to the junior college. In other words, junior colleges, as regards most of their courses of study, are co-ordinate with the first two years' course (the lower division) of the university-college at Berkeley. In order to establish cordial



working relationships promotive of the best interests of both junior colleges and university, it has been found advisable to devise plans for joint deliberation and procedure. To this end, the university has created the office of university representative in educational relations, which serves as a clearing house for all problems of mutual concern. Under the general direction of the university representative is the examiner of schools who, in cooperation with the schools committee of the academic senate, has charge of junior-college visitation. This work of visitation, instituted in the spring of 1916, falls into two groups, those directly affiliated and those not affiliated; although visitors may be assigned to schools falling in both groups. Visitors are really liaison officers between the university and the junior colleges. On the one hand they may serve as interpreters in making clear the aims, the ideals, the standards which are attempted to be maintained in the university lower division courses, and endeavoring to win an allegiance to principles of collegiate instruction which will make each junior college a more effective part of the whole program of higher education. On the other hand, the reports which the visitors make to the university officials should just as truly interpret the junior college to the university officials charged with the evaluation of scholastic records of junior-college students who request advance standing, enabling them to make decisions on a much more equitable basis than otherwise. To these visitors, therefore, is presented the opportunity to render a distinct and valuable service to both the junior colleges of the state and the university. In 1918 the university issued a "Junior College Bulletin" which has served as a handbook and guide to junior-college administrators. The bulletin sets forth three main purposes, as follows:

- I. The first is to state the position of the University of California in regard to the development of junior colleges and in regard to university recognition of their work.
- II. The second is to indicate to students who plan to come to the university from the junior colleges the nature of the work required for advanced study, and thus to guide them in their choice of work in the junior colleges.
- III. The third is to suggest to the administrators of the junior colleges what, in the view of the university departments, may most profitably be attempted by them in various fields of study.

The bulletin has made no attempt to consider the problem faced by the junior colleges in the satisfaction of local needs or the offering of vocational training.

One division of the above bulletin is given over to a series of recommendations to junior-college administrators from each department of the university which offers lower division courses at Berkeley, in which an attempt is made to assist junior colleges both in developing courses and in providing books and equipment therefor. I select the following excerpt as a typical illustration—the suggestions offered by the department of physics:

### PHYSICS

An advanced course in *general* physics (and not specialized treatment of limited subjects) constitutes the proper field for junior college work in this subject.

Such a course should consist of three well-defined parts: the experimental lecture, the recitation, and the laboratory work, with about equal emphasis on each of the three parts. This course should stand squarely on the foundation furnished by a first course in the subject, and should proceed by extension of old topics and by the addition of new ones. The first year's work in such a course should make free use of trigonometry; and the second year's work will demand some familiarity with the differential and integral calculus for the mathematical formulation of the subject. The scope of the lecture and recitation material is satisfactorily outlined in any one of the following textbooks of physics:

Duff, *A Textbook of Physics*. 4th Edition (Edition, Blakiston).

Kimball, *College Physics*. 2d Edition (Henry Holt).

Ganot, *Physics*. Atkinson, 18th Edition (Wm. Wood & Co.).

Reed and Guthe, *College Physics*. (Macmillan).

Spinney, *Textbook of Physics*. (Macmillan).

The first year's work should treat the subjects of properties of matter, mechanics, and heat, with one lecture, one recitation, and one two-hour laboratory period per week throughout the year. The second year's course should take up the subjects of wave motion, sound, light, electricity, and magnetism, devoting to them one lecture, one recitation and one three-hour laboratory period per week.

The cost of equipment, in addition to rooms already provided with suitable furniture and supplied with gas, water, and electricity, should be considered under four heads: (1) equipment of the shop or preparation room, (2) apparatus for student's use in the laboratory, (3) demonstration apparatus for the instructor's use, and (4) reference books.

The shop equipment should consist of bench tools for both wood and metal, a lathe with accessories, a soldering outfit, and conveniences for glass-blowing. Its cost is estimated at from \$400 to \$600.

The minimum equipment for the laboratory and lecture room for the first year's course is estimated at from \$2000 to \$2500, for a class of less than ten students.

The minimum equipment for the second year's course is estimated at from \$2500 to \$3000.

A reasonable allowance for maintenance of the shop and first course is \$250 annually, and for both courses \$500 annually.

The initial expenditure for reference and library books in connection with the work in physics should be about \$200 with \$25 available each year for additions.

If only a partial course is offered, the laboratory work should be organized before an attempt is made to offer the experimental lecture, inasmuch as the satisfactory completion of the laboratory work would be of much greater assistance to a student transferring to another institution.

Copies of the laboratory manual, lecture outlines, and problem sets covering the work as given at the university will be sent on application to the secretary of the department of physics. A detailed list of apparatus for the laboratory course and a suggested list of reference books are also available.

Another division of the bulletin includes departmental prerequisites for advanced work at the university. If the junior-college student is making preparation in this direction, his instructors may thus be informed regarding those courses which are required or advised as preliminary to higher studies.

Still another division of greater significance possibly is devoted to a statement of the university's position on *minimum requirements* and its suggestion for bringing about a richer functioning of

the junior college. Some of the features regarded as minimum essentials are given below :

### I. EQUIPMENT

1. *Laboratory*.—In addition to the equipment necessary for the operation of the laboratory in a high-school science, the junior college should provide the necessary equipment (as indicated in later pages of this bulletin) for the college course or courses in each science that it plans to give. This will normally cost, for each laboratory, from \$1,500 to \$3,000.
2. *Library*.—Additions to the library, with proper reference books, will be indispensable in English and history. A certain number of books for reference purposes will also be needed in each of the other subjects. Lists of desirable books will be supplied by the university upon request.

### II. FACULTY

1. A junior college should be prepared upon starting its work to organize a regular staff of at least five instructors chosen with special reference to their ability to give collegiate work. Of these five it will seldom be possible to choose more than three from the high-school staff. Normally each instructor will confine his work in the junior college to one subject, and will devote his remaining time to high-school teaching, preferably in the same subject or in an allied subject.
2. Instructors should be chosen with special reference to their ability to teach, their personality, and their preparation in the subject to be taught. For junior-college work the master's degree in the subject in which instruction is to be given will be thought of as the normal minimum scholastic requirement.
3. Instructors should not be allowed to carry more than fifteen one-hour periods, or twenty 45-minute periods of instruction per week. If administrative work is handled, the amount of instruction should be less.

At the risk of tediousness, I should like to add, at this point, another quotation giving the university's view of the importance of the teaching force in junior colleges :

The chief problem of the junior college, as of every institution of learning, will always be the problem of the teaching force. It is generally recognized that the work of junior-college grade is beyond the training of the rank and file of high-school teachers. It is desirable that the junior-college teacher should have had some experience in university instruction—just as it is desirable that the university teacher should have had some experience in secondary work. And certainly the junior-college instructor should not be inferior to the university instructor with respect to advanced scholarship. This means that he should have devoted two or three years to graduate study in his chosen field, that he should be a specially trained expert, and should have done work equivalent to that usually required for the doctor's degree. The degree itself is not a *sine qua non*; but the habit of mind, the general attitude toward knowledge which results from training like that which leads up to the degree—this is indispensable.

If the first essential for successful junior-college teaching is that the teacher should have had advanced training in the subject which he teaches, the second is that he must not be overburdened with work. He must have leisure for reading, reflection, and growth. The opportunity to carry on research either in the field of his special interest or in the art of teaching his chosen subject would make his position attractive and would enhance his value as a teacher. The hours of instruction should not be more than twelve or, at most, fifteen, per week—not because it is the business of the junior college to foster research, but because it is the business of the junior college to get the most out of its instructors, to give them opportunity for life and progress, to encourage them to preserve a scholarly attitude toward their work. With the same end in view, liberal provision for laboratories and libraries is essential. In many fields of work it should be possible for an instructor to add to the sum of knowledge with no more equipment than that which might properly be expected of a junior college. In all fields it should be possible for him to keep abreast of the best thought on the methods of imparting his subject, to devise and to elaborate new methods of his own, making of his class room a laboratory for well-considered experiments in the art of teaching.

The university also has been at great pains as well as expense in carrying on the work of assistance by means of visitation. On the



other hand, the university has come to realize the permanency of the junior college as an independent unit in our public school system. The question now arises as to the need of indefinitely prolonging the policy of affiliation. I believe I am safe in saying that affiliation is *not* regarded as a permanent policy by the university, although, just as in the case of high schools, the university will continue to send visitors to the junior colleges as these institutions indicate a desire for such co-operation. Rather than the policy of pre-accrediting of colleges as such, there will develop, probably, the plan of accreditation of individual students, a plan at present in operation with students from other colleges. Nor does the university wish to exert as much power in the nomination of faculty members of junior colleges as the agreement makes possible, but will be quite content to offer suggestions when requested to do so by administrative heads. Standards for appointment to positions are increasing—to the extent that candidates have small hope of success unless they can show at least two years of training above the A. B. degree, including the possession of the master's degree. Indeed, the university would welcome regulatory action by the state board of education setting up these conditions as minimum standards and basic for recommendations.

In conclusion, I am conscious of having given the impression of treating only part of the functions of the junior colleges of California. This is true, but I have discussed the features that are most truly functioning. I believe, and firmly so, that the development of the vocational and community functions of these institutions is just as important—possibly more so. To any careful observer, however, it is perfectly evident that California's junior colleges, with the few exceptions I have cited previously, have done no more than make initial gestures along these lines.

## CO-ORDINATING THE WORK OF THE SENIOR HIGH SCHOOL AND JUNIOR COLLEGE

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### I

It is doubtless possible to look at the problem of co-ordinating the work in the junior college with that of the senior high school below from more than a single viewpoint. The purpose in this presen-

tation is to discuss it from the profoundly vital one of aiming to secure for the student during his progress through these two units in the school system the maximum of curriculum progress. I shall first endeavor to demonstrate that this is not now being accomplished and then follow this exposition with a brief statement of how greater total progress is achievable.

Causally connected with the present inadequate curriculum progress of the student during these high-school and college years is the fact that much of the work now done in the secondary school is also given in the upper unit. Something of the better type of thinking which characterizes the belief that the college is doing secondary-school work is illustrated in the following quotation:

"The wealth of subject-matter offered in a high-school curriculum today often hopelessly outruns any possibility of mastery by a given pupil within a four-year period and much therefore remains untouched which the student may possibly wish to attack at a later point in his career. The college has been willing in increasing degree to satisfy this demand and as a result we find a wide range of identical subjects taught in school and college. The mere fact that the two varieties of institution offer the same work is not itself conclusive evidence of waste, but a careful study of the situation leads one to question whether the present practice is really defensible in all its aspects.

". . . We may well remember that our colleges pursue two lines in their practice with regard to the school work which they duplicate. In the one case they do the seemingly obvious thing and after a student has covered certain ground in school he is permitted to proceed in college to the next more advanced stage of the same subject. Work in the modern languages may illustrate this case. But in the second instance, where the colleges offer work which is nominally identical with that done in the schools and entrance credit is given for the same, the student, when once he is safely inside the college walls, finds himself set to doing right over again much which he has already done in school. This procedure is frequently justified on the ground that the work is carried on in college from a more mature and advanced point of view. Certain courses in science both physical and biological may illustrate this case.<sup>1</sup> . . ."

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<sup>1</sup>Angell, J. R.: *The Duplication of School Work by the College*. *School Review*, 21:1-10. Jan., 1913.

## II

Dr. Angell has here expressed his conviction that high-school and college offerings overlap each other, and he provides at least one explanation. He has not, however, touched on the *historical* or *originating cause* of the duplication, which is a fact not generally known, that much of the present high-school curriculum has been inherited from the college above. What made this possible was the downward depression during the nineteenth century of the subjects in the college offering. The ancient languages and literatures are the only fields in which there was no consistent downward shift. Such courses as beginning modern language, the history of English literature, mathematics, the sciences, and even courses in the philosophical group joined the downward movement.

With many of these subjects the shift did not stop with the freshman college year, but continued into the high-school years below, many of them being later prescribed as parts of the admission requirements to college. Among the high-school subjects formerly parts of college offerings are elementary and higher algebra, plane and solid geometry, French and German, history of English literature, rhetoric and composition, physics, chemistry, botany, zoology, history, economics, etc. Moreover, a comparison of older college textbooks with present-day high-school manuals shows that the process of lowering was often accomplished by enhancement of the course, rather than by dilution. In a very significant sense, therefore, the high school has become the "people's college." The two courses to be used to illustrate the extent and character of the overlapping will be chemistry and economics, the latter a much more recent heritage than the former of the high school from the college.

## III

The high-school courses in the field here reported upon bear such names as "chemistry," "elementary chemistry," "general chemistry," and "beginning chemistry," with a scattering of other titles. The college courses bear the names "general inorganic chemistry," "general chemistry," "Chemistry I and II," and "elementary chemistry," the last two titles appearing much less frequently than the first two. Almost all courses represented both in high school and college extend over a full school year. The numbers of recitation and laboratory periods per week tend to be identical in the two institutions, the

difference in the total amount of time given to the college courses arising from the longer periods in that unit.

The data assembled concerning the classification of students who take the high-school course corroborate those of other investigations, showing that it is predominantly pursued by seniors, although also often taken by juniors. Students in these first college courses are primarily freshmen, although to some extent sophomores. We have here an instance of a subject taken predominantly by those in the last year of the lower and in the first year of the upper unit. This situation, combined with the approach to identity in titles and duration of the courses, presages a large measure of identity of content.

The high schools represented are twenty-six in number and distributed to cities of 10,000 and over in six north central states. The forty-one higher institutions, all but four of the separate college type, are located in the same general region, but scattered over eleven different states.

The chief feature of the method of comparing the content of high-school and college courses in this subject is that of comparing the textbooks and laboratory manuals, the use of which was reported by the heads of departments. This procedure has its justification in the fact that deviations from such materials are not at all commonly made. That is to say, the textbook and laboratory manual constitute the course.

The two larger headings under which the content has been divided are (a) the common elements and (b) the other subdivisions. The former of these is again distributed to occurrence, preparation, physical properties, chemical properties, history, uses, and preparation, description, and uses of compounds, and the latter to rarer elements, organic compounds, processes, principles, chemical laws, definitions, questions, problems, summaries, and re-statements.

From what is generally known about the total amount of content in the two groups of textbooks, it would not have been difficult to predict that the college texts would have *more* material in many of the subdivisions which high-school and college courses have in common. This prediction is borne out by the facts as to the averages in the two college and three high-school texts in most common use, since in all but four of the eighteen subdivisions the average college amounts



exceed the high-school amounts. The exceptions are the uses of the common elements, organic compounds, questions, summaries, and restatements. The second of the exceptions is to be explained by the fact that the college courses are more often designated as general *inorganic* chemistry than are the high-school courses, which aim to be even more general in character. The third and fourth are explicable through the greater emphasis upon pedagogical devices in the texts used in the lower unit. The largest differences in favor of the college texts are in the preparation and properties of compounds, the rarer elements, processes, principles, and definitions. Despite the differences all subdivisions are represented in both college and high-school texts.

The percentage distributions tend to emphasize the similarity more than do the data setting forth the actual space assignments in numbers of equated lines. The notable differences in favor of the college are reduced to four, viz., preparation of compounds, properties of compounds, the rarer elements, and principles. On the other hand, one subdivision, uses of compounds, is added to those in which high-school texts have an excess, while for others the excess appearing in the data on amounts is accentuated.

As far as is to be concluded from the analysis of texts, it may be said that, *although college texts are more extended than high-school texts, the relative recognition of the several subdivisions does not differ widely, excepting that the former stress compounds (especially their preparation and properties), the rarer elements, and principles more than do the latter, while the latter make more of uses (both of elements and compounds), organic materials, and pedagogical features such as questions and summaries. Furthermore, the similarities far exceed the differences.*

It will be pertinent to illustrate the nature of some of the differences found. The chief difference in favor of the college texts under the main head of common elements appears in the subdivisions dealing with *compounds*. For instance, the mean number of compounds of sulphur mentioned in college texts is 21; in high-school texts, 9.6. For nitrogen the means are 13 and 8; for iron, 19 and 11.6, respectively. The difference in the matter of the *rarer and less common elements* may be made clear in brief space by stating that, while one college text refers to at least 22 and the other to at least 20, high-



school texts refer to a much smaller number. Radium and helium are the only two elements discussed in all of the five texts analyzed.

If the four groups—processes, principles, laws, and definitions—are assumed to comprehend the more theoretical portions of the course in chemistry and therefore considered for the time being as a whole, and the average percentages of total content in them computed for college and high-school texts, respectively, these are found to be 41.35 and 37.34. The theoretical portions of the college texts can thus be said to exceed those of high-school texts by four per cent—an appreciable, but hardly extraordinary difference.

Corroboratory testimony of some value on the extent of similarity and difference of high-school and college texts is yielded by a comparative study of the illustrations to be found in them. The average number in the two groups of texts is almost identical, being 159 for the college and 164 for the high-school. If the extent of overlapping of illustrations in the two groups of texts is computed, the procedure in computation assuming identity of the illustrations portray similar apparatus and are used to convey the same principle or idea, it is found to include roughly three-fifths and two-thirds of those appearing, respectively, in the college and high-school texts.

A count of the different experiments to be found in the laboratory manuals prepared to accompany the five texts analyzed results in a total of 99. Of these the two college manuals have 79 and 85, or a mean of 82. The mean for the three high-school manuals is  $75\frac{2}{3}$ , or only  $6\frac{1}{3}$  less than the college average. This count of the large experiment heads does not, however, do full justice to the difference in extent of laboratory activity provided for, a difference which is somewhat accentuated when the comparison includes a consideration of sub-experiments (or portions of experiments). Data on this point, space for the presentation of which cannot be spared, give ground for the belief that, although there is much overlapping in the larger features and content of the experiments introduced, the more extended detail in the college manuals means a more thoroughgoing experimental exploration of the fields represented.

Reverting to overlapping, the average percentages computed in terms of space assigned to the large experiment heads, let it be said that they turn out to be 72.59 for college and 67.69 for high-school experiments. When to these amounts and percentages are added

those of experiments found in both groups but not in each text of both groups, the totals mount to almost all the exercises, roughly 99 and 95 per cent for the two groups of manuals, respectively. This leaves only about 1 and 5 per cent, respectively, peculiar to college and to high-school manuals. The larger per cent of materials distinctive of the high-school manuals arises out of the desire to emphasize the "practical" in the experiments, as well as to make the course more general by introducing simple experiments in the organic field. Even when any conclusion drawn is qualified by the fact of the larger number of sub-experiments introduced in the college manuals, it must admit that the laboratory portions of college and high-school courses in chemistry resemble each other vastly more than they differ—that they can not be far from identical in major aspects.

*Quantitative differences.*—Some of the facts in description of high-school and college courses in chemistry already cited point to appreciable and, in some instances, even notable quantitative distinctions. The average numbers of equated lines in the textbooks are respectively 15,875 and 27,343. The average number of topics per high-school text—the term topic referring to each common element, each rarer element, each "process," etc.—is 261.3 and per college text, 306.5, while the average number of lines per topic are, respectively, 60.7 and 90.0. The median number of pages of text assigned per clock-hour of recitation or lecture are 7.9 and 9.2, showing a difference less marked than may be anticipated from the measures of gross content just presented. The reduction is accounted for by the considerably larger number of clock-hours of instruction in the college courses.

It is clear from the comparisons made that, although there are some differences between high-school and first college courses in chemistry, they are very much alike. Consequently, if the materials presented in high-school courses may be presumed to be secondary in character, there is relatively little in these first college courses not purely secondary. Moreover, if a student takes the course in general inorganic chemistry in college after having had the high-school course—which is often done—he is repeating almost all of it. Even in that relatively small proportion of higher institutions where such a student enters upon a course in general inorganic chemistry presumed to be administered for those who offered the high-school unit for admission, there must be a large amount of repetition.

## IV

The high-school and college courses in economics are taken by students typically two school years apart in classification. The total amount of instructional time devoted to them does not tend to differ widely. The former of these two facts anticipates a considerable measure of difference between the courses, the latter, more of similarity. A comparison of the courses, paradoxical as the statement may seem, bears out both expectations.

Similarities of the courses on the two levels will first be reviewed. Both are constituted predominantly of the textbooks used, as is shown in the results of a computation of the percentages which these are of the total reading requirements of the courses, in the infrequency of omission of portions of the textbooks in use, and, moreover, in the fact that most of the collateral readings are in volumes intended for use as texts. There is considerable community of use by high-school and college courses of works reported as collateral reading. The most significant similarity of all is to be found in the proportionate distribution to the several divisions of the subject, showing that not only the college, but the high-school courses also, endeavor to make contact with all major aspects of the field. Variation from course to course in the matter of amounts of materials covered shows some high schools doing as much as or more than some colleges. Lastly, class room procedure does not differ widely in the courses in the two units of the school system.

On the other hand, high-school and college courses seldom use identical works as textbooks. Again, although proportionate distributions to the several divisions are roughly equivalent, the amounts of material in each division and for the entire course are much greater in the college than in the high school. In consequence, the reading requirements of the courses per clock-hour of instruction are decidedly heavier for courses on the upper level. Doubtless there are also differences in difficulty, differences which are likely to elude the type of analysis here used and which are encouraged by the greater extent of selection of college students and better subject preparation on the part of the instructor.

Although far from identical, the courses on the two levels have enough in common to warrant concern over the current practice of ignoring in the higher institution the fact that a student has had the

course in the lower unit. The degree of identity in the present stage of development of the high-school course is not sufficient to justify accepting it in lieu of a standard college course in the field. The situation, moreover, is such as not to promise soon a partial recognition of the high-school course, as is done in chemistry, by abbreviating or otherwise modifying the college course for those who have had the work in the lower unit. Nevertheless, no progress is made in the solution of the problem by disparaging the course in the lower unit and encouraging the deplorable repetition by having students take both courses, as is now too often done. If the present trend of more extended recognition of the social studies in the high school continues, as seems almost certain, this repetition is likely to increase rather than to diminish, unless high-school economics comes to be merged in the composite courses in social science recently finding place there.

## V

The findings of extended investigations in five other fields—English literature, English composition, elementary French, algebra, and American history—are for the most part fully as striking as concerns the extent of overlapping, the trend of conclusions being in much the same general direction. In quantitative ways the college exceed the high-school courses, although they overlap generously when nature and distribution of content is considered.

It is to be conceded that, although the methods of inquiry used are designed to discover some of the *qualitative* differences between the courses on the two levels represented, they have not found all. Nothing short of a comprehensive plan of measuring the results of the instruction given can meet the requirements of the situation. Among the factors certain to make for qualitative distinctions, at least as concerns results, are the larger extent of selection in the student body of even the first years of the college as compared with the last years of the present high-school period and the more extended training in subject-matter of college teachers. There are also other qualitative differences in detail of content which are not discoverable by the methods used.

But, after all admissions of undiscovered distinctions have been made, the large extent of community of content remains as the salient feature of the curriculum situation investigated. This conclusion of the large extent of identity is encouraged, moreover, by other facts



than those just summarized. We have learned that much, if not most, of present-day high-school offerings is a heritage from collegiate curricula, that subject after subject has been depressed, usually without dilution, from college to high-school years. Since this depression was accomplished by teachers trained in the colleges, it would have been surprising indeed if they did not transfer to the lower school as nearly complete as possible what had been in the work taken by them in their college careers.

The same conclusion is anticipated also by facts concerning the proximity of classification of students taking the high-school and college courses examined, and the degree of similarity in the methods used, the latter being in turn anticipated by the negligible differences in the typical size of class sections. For example, the portion of the high-school course in English which is devoted to the survey of English literature is taken typically by seniors, while the college course is usually taken by freshmen and sophomores. The tendency to nearness of classification is characteristic of most of the courses scrutinized. The first college courses in most of these subjects are thus typically pursued either in the year immediately following that in which the corresponding course is pursued in high school, or with but a single school-year intervening. Much less frequently is there a wider gap of time between them. Under such circumstances it is not to be expected that the courses would differ widely.

The other type of fact anticipating similarity is the degree of similarity of methods. The chief difference here seems to be the more frequent use of the lecture method in the college courses, more especially in the survey course in English literature, in chemistry, and in American history. Even in these there is not as large a difference.

A canvass of unanalyzed subjects and courses leads to conclusions not differing widely from those already drawn, but at the same time to such as acknowledge a somewhat greater extent of difference and less of repetition in some subjects and courses.

## VI

In the face of all the overlapping and repetition which appears to be the rule in the subjects and courses represented in both high school and college, little is done in the way of obviating it, as may be judged from the following summary of practices in a large number of colleges and universities.



1. Only a single college catalogue among 86 selected at random gave evidence of attempting to avoid repetition in English: one college announces that it is possible for the student to be excused from freshmen rhetoric by passing an examination at the opening of the school year.

2. The standardization of course sequences in older subjects like the ancient languages and mathematics seems to satisfy the colleges on the score of overlapping, as no special adjustments appear in these fields, despite what is almost a certainty of a large amount of overlapping.

3. In approximately ninety per cent of the colleges two units of high-school modern language are counted the equivalent of a year of college work, the student with the former amount to his credit being admitted to second-year college courses in the same language.

4. Chemistry is the only one of the college sciences in which there is any extent of effort to recognize the fact of overlapping. In all others there is seldom, if ever, administrative acknowledgment, other than giving entrance credit, that the student has had a high-school course in an identical line. Even in chemistry only 24, or less than 30 per cent, of a total of 86 colleges make such acknowledgment. Of these, 13 reduce the number of semester-hours (by an average of 4.4) required for the completion of the college course in general inorganic chemistry. The principal remaining form of recognition is simply listing a separate course in general inorganic chemistry to students offering a high-school unit in this subject, the total number of credits for the course being the same as that for the regular beginning course, and concluding by putting those students no further up the sequence in the department than those who have taken the course for those entering without high-school chemistry. There were nine such institutions represented in the group of catalogues examined.

In all the social subjects students who have had no high-school course in a particular field enter the same courses as those who present half or whole units of admission in the same field.

There is, thus, an *all too common disregard in the college of what the student has compassed in his period of high-school training and, moreover, no notable tendency in the direction of proper recognition.* The situation is not likely to experience early improvement because the work repeated is given in two separate institutions the upper of

which is unaware and making no effort to become aware of what is going forward in the lower.

## VII

The facts presented and the conclusions drawn all point in a single direction, and that is toward what the public junior college is rapidly bringing, the inclusion of the first two college years as a part of a coherent plan of secondary education. While some improvement can be effected through introducing junior-senior lines of cleavage in present-day higher institutions and through vigorous efforts at co-operation between those responsible for education on the high-school and junior-college levels concerned, these means will be inadequate to the needs of the situation. What is required is an organization of education that will bring the courses on the two levels and those presenting them into intimate and frequent contact. Only in this way can we have assurance of achieving a realignment of courses in each field promising the maximum of progress and training to students pursuing the sequences represented. For instance, it is unlikely that, after junior-college reorganization of the type that brings these years of work in close association with that in the unit below, we shall go on having, as is now a too frequent practice, two courses in American history, one taken typically in the twelfth grade and the other in the fourteenth or fifteenth, both of them attempting to exhaust the possibilities of the outstanding movements from the period of discovery to the present day. The same may be said of high-school and first college courses in other fields, such as chemistry, economics, etc. The realignment should and will bring profound modifications of content and character of courses and a standardization in these respects not now possible. Only through junior-college reorganization of the type indicated will we eliminate superfluous repetition in the college of ground already covered in the high school. Also, only in this way will we soon arrive at a place where educational advice to the student will assist in securing an approach to the proper distribution of work to the several fields during his full period of secondary education. With the present tendency to think of these two levels as distinct periods of education there is too little likelihood of achieving anything like a satisfactory distribution.

The new sequences and new courses within and without these sequences must at best be slow in coming. Their development must

wait upon the greater prevalence of the junior-college organization, and a greater confidence borne of experience on the part of teachers and administrators in the new unit. In these early stages we shall need to follow rather carefully the recommendations of the college authorities upon whom the supervision of junior-college work now falls. We should, however, begin at once to consider the problem of providing these newly constituted courses. Nevertheless, most immediate efforts should be expended in a way more immediately valuable, which is, without the far-reaching reorganization ultimately essential to see that our present courses in junior-college years articulate more efficiently with senior high-school courses than do these same college courses when given in a separate institution. Observations at the time of my extended visitation of junior colleges warrants the statement that this articulation and co-ordination is already superior to that in the typical collegiate situation in which the instructor has infrequent contact with what goes forward in the lower school. But much more can be done, even in the situation where, as is desirably typical, the same teacher gives instruction on both senior high-school and junior-college levels, by a more careful adjustment of the courses of the upper unit to those in the lower. It requires a careful and constant scrutiny of the courses concerned and the abilities and disabilities of students enrolled in them to assure the maximum of progress of the student.

## SUGGESTIONS FOR THE PLACE AND FUNCTION OF JUNIOR COLLEGES IN A SYSTEM OF SCHOOLS

ROBERT JOSSELYN LEONARD, DIRECTOR, SCHOOL OF EDUCATION,  
TEACHERS' COLLEGE, COLUMBIA UNIVERSITY

In the interest of brevity as well as clarity, the suggestions regarding the place and function of junior colleges in the scheme of public education in the states are stated in the form of theses. The writer is well aware of the honest and acute differences of opinion among educators as to every phase of the junior-college movement; incidentally a hopeful rather than a disturbing omen! While there is no inclination on the speaker's part to promote or unduly to emphasize the points of view here expressed, there is a sincere desire that the mode of presentation adopted will result in clarifying differences

of opinion, discovering upon what points opinions vary most, and revealing the data and processes of reasoning which have led others to hold counter views.

I. Junior colleges should be regarded as belonging to the secondary level of education rather than to the collegiate or university level. As such they are an extension of the high school. This conclusion is justified by the facts that:

1. Instruction in the first two years of the typical college offering is secondary in character—beginning or intermediate French, Spanish, Latin, physics, chemistry, algebra.
2. The methods of instruction employed are typical secondary-school methods.
3. The students, in the main, are physically and mentally of the secondary type—advanced adolescents—not ready for higher education either by desire, preparation or capacity.
4. The mere fact that universities now offer this rudimentary work does not make the work itself of university level. It is admitted as secondary by practically all university men who have studied the problem.

II. If junior colleges are not to be regarded as belonging to the secondary level, but are claimed as part of the higher level, then they should be organized as branches of colleges and universities and controlled by the governing boards of these institutions. The decision that they belong to the higher level would be unfortunate for:

1. It would tend to distribute the funds and activities of universities over too wide areas, thus jeopardizing the work which only the higher educational institutions can perform.
2. It would seriously interfere with the local educational initiative.
3. It would bring into being in the states great systems of education which would likely fall by weight of their complexity, and,
4. It would probably injure the junior-college movement irreparably by enforcing upon secondary education the traditions of higher education.

III. Every movement which will tend to place secondary education under the exclusive operation and control of boards and officers

in charge of secondary schools should be encouraged. The development of junior colleges is hastening the process of evolution, which may ultimately make it possible for the universities and colleges to withdraw from the secondary field.

1. Universities are gradually being reorganized on the basis of a lower division comprising the first and second years and an upper division for the third and fourth years.
2. General curricula, similar to the offerings of junior colleges, are being organized for the lower divisions.
3. Special and professional curricula are tending more and more to begin with the third year and to require as preparation two years and general college work.
4. An increasing proportion of students are entering universities at the third year, as transfers from junior colleges and other two year institutions of similar character. This is particularly true of professional schools and colleges.
5. If junior colleges, throughout the years, measure up to present expectations it will be relatively easy for universities to dispense with their secondary work (or years one and two) and concentrate their efforts on the advanced levels. By a natural and gradual process they may eliminate the first two years' instruction in agriculture, commerce, engineering, etc., and finally in liberal arts when junior colleges are established as universally and conducted as successfully as high schools.

IV. Junior colleges should only be organized where an average daily attendance of two hundred can be maintained and where the property valuation of the district is sufficient to insure adequate financial support.

1. This means a property valuation of at least \$10,000,000.
2. In addition to these safeguards suggested, no junior college should be established without the expressed consent and approval of the state of education or similar board.

V. The state board of education should have at least as much control over the junior college as it has over high schools.

1. This control should cover the same items as for high schools: certification of teachers, curricula, attendance, reporting systems, and inspection.



VI. At the start, junior colleges should be governed by special boards elected or appointed for this exclusive purpose. They should be financed separately, but on the same general plan as high schools, and should have separate buildings, instructors and administrative staffs. It is assumed that, throughout the years, the relations between the junior colleges and the high schools will become increasingly intimate and that ultimately both will be merged into a single unit.

1. Every new enterprise needs freedom and must be conducted by those who believe in it.
2. Every new enterprise must have sufficient identity to enable it to develop its own character and be seen, known, and supported by the people and the community.
3. The obvious danger in this proposal (VI) is that community and educational "boosters," believing, as they do, in continual expansion, will promote the idea of making the junior college a senior college. The possibility of such expansion should be prohibited by statute.

VII. In cities of medium size, where there is an established normal school and where a junior college is contemplated, the junior college should be organized as part of the normal school.

1. Only in the very large cities is it possible to maintain a junior college and a normal school without mutual injury.
2. Normal schools are desirous of moving to a four-year basis. By offering junior college work for the first two years this transition is possible.
3. The incorporation of the junior college within the normal school will—
  - a. Greatly strengthen academic standards.
  - b. Add materially to the student body.
  - c. Improve the calibre of the student personnel, and,
  - d. Attract young men, some of whom may transfer to teacher training courses.

VIII. Where the junior college is organized as a part of the normal school it should be financed and administered in the same manner as the normal school.

1. While this does violence to the idea that the junior college is part of the secondary system, the advantages gained to the

educational system on a whole by the plan suggested will more than offset the disadvantages due to the failure to hold uniformly to the conception of the junior college as part of the secondary system.

IX. In the early stages of the junior college movement, the relations between the junior college and the state higher educational institution should be intimate. In some states this relation may well be legal affiliation; in the main, however, it should be on the basis of mutual subscription to working agreements. The intimate relations here suggested are needed in order—

1. To assist the junior college in maintaining high educational standards, and appropriate pre-professional curricula.
2. To convince parents that the junior college is a safe place to send their children.
3. To foster mutual understanding between the faculties of junior colleges and universities, and,
4. To assure graduates of junior colleges as favorable entrance as possible to the third year work of universities.

X. While there will be great diversity in the offerings of junior colleges, and great possibilities for the development of all curricula, both general and technical, the technical junior college has unique opportunities. Three such general types are needed—agricultural, industrial, and commercial.

A. As to the agricultural junior college—

1. All groups concerned are more or less dissatisfied with colleges of agriculture.
2. Farmers claim that colleges of agriculture are too scientific and scientists claim that they are too practical. Both are right.
3. Junior colleges, in two years, could train farmers adequately equipped with all that science has to offer that can now be applied under normal conditions. Most states could well afford to support a dozen such junior colleges.
4. Schools of agriculture, beginning their work with what is now known as the third year, are needed to train

agricultural leaders, scientists, for research and for experimental stations, farm agents, and agricultural teachers, and the like. One such school would adequately serve a state, and in some areas of the United States, several states.

B. As to the industrial junior college—

1. There are no middle technical schools in this country. Such schools could serve here quite as constructively as they have served on the continent. The fields of foremanship, industrial art, advanced craftsmanship, chemical technology, and a score of others are all open. Two years' work beyond the high school is as long a period of time as most workers in these fields could afford to give as preparation or could profit by taking.
2. The same criticism is made of engineering colleges as is made of agricultural colleges. The same remedy is suggested—industrial junior colleges or two years and schools of engineering beginning their work with the third year, stressing the scientific and technical aspects, rather than the operative.
3. Boys who successfully complete the so-called "Smith-Hughes" industrial classes are not as a rule eligible by preparation or type, to enter the standard universities. Industrial classes in junior classes would provide exactly the opportunities such boys need to enter industrial life above the operative level.

C. As to the commercial junior college:

1. There are no commercial middle schools in this country. Such schools may successfully enter many of the varied fields of salesmanship, traffic, mercantile and passenger transportation, office management, store operation, and dozens of others.
2. Entering upon these fields requires no adjustment in colleges and schools of commerce, for in the main, unlike colleges of agriculture and engineering, they are now organized to meet the requirements of the highest commercial levels with no reference to the middle levels.

## THIRD SESSION

The third session was held in the Red Room of Hotel LaSalle. At 6:20 p. m. two hundred thirty-five high-school principals were at the tables. President Claude P. Briggs presided. Principal B. Frank Brown, principal of Lake View High School, Chicago, Illinois, and first president of National Association of Secondary-School Principals, spoke briefly of the history of the association. The orchestra of the Oak Park and River Forest Township High School, under the direction of Anton H. Ems, gave the program below:

Overture "Mirella".....Gounod  
 Serenade .....Drigo  
 Introduction from "Sigurd Suite".....Grieg  
 Huldigungs March from "Sigurd Suite"...Grieg

The speaker of the occasion was JOHN WILLIAM WITHERS, DEAN OF THE GRADUATE SCHOOL OF EDUCATION, NEW YORK UNIVERSITY, NEW YORK CITY, who spoke without notes as follows:

THE INCREASING BURDEN OF SECONDARY AND  
HIGHER EDUCATION

JOHN WILLIAM WITHERS, DEAN, GRADUATE SCHOOL OF EDUCATION,  
 NEW YORK UNIVERSITY, NEW YORK CITY

Certain reactionary tendencies are noticeable in American life today that give us considerable concern for the development of public education in the immediate future. The great World War did much to concentrate the attention of the American people on the place and importance of the public schools in our national life. The peculiar strengths and weaknesses of the schools were clearly revealed. It was also seen that they were a most valuable agency through which the needs of the government might be expressed and public activity successfully stimulated in the prosecution of the war. On the other hand, certain weaknesses in the results of public education as it had previously been carried on were brought home to the people with equal clearness and force. Among these was the prevalence of illiteracy and of physical unfitness on the part, not only of our foreign born, but also of our native adult population. It was also discovered that the schools, inadequate as they had been, were being still further weakened by failure to secure qualified teachers in sufficient numbers

to fill the vacancies made by those who were dropping out of the service.

Popular attention to the standard qualifications required of teachers at that time, showed that standards already ridiculously low were being lowered still further in many places in order to keep the schools in operation at all. All of this served to call forth an unusual public interest in the welfare of the schools and a universal effort to improve them. Salaries of teachers were increased in order to compete with other occupations in attracting to the profession and holding there the type of men and women that were needed. More money was devoted to the erection and improvement of school buildings and to the general physical and educational equipment of the schools. The needs of public education were more discussed by the people in general, they occupied more space in newspapers and periodicals, and more time of state legislatures in enacting laws for the improvement of the schools than had been true in any previous period of American history. As a result, popular education was literally on a boom, and unusual progress was made in many directions. However, when the idealism and the stress and strain of the World War were over, a reaction affecting the schools was almost inevitable. The slogan "Back to Normalcy," heard in the last presidential campaign, has too often been interpreted to mean, back to conditions in public education which prevailed before the war, rather than forward to that higher and more efficient educational service which the new conditions caused by the war have made imperatively necessary.

But more serious by far than this change in social psychology is the economic strain everywhere felt due to the enormous increase in governmental expenditures of all sorts. On every side there is a strong demand that taxes be cut in every way possible. That this demand is reasonable will be apparent to anyone who will seriously study the facts. During the four-year period from 1918 to 1922, the total expenditure for purposes of government, national, state, and local, averaged more than twelve and a half billions of dollars annually, or an aggregate of fifty billions for the four-year period. It was not so long ago that a presidential campaign was fought out in opposition to a "billion dollar congress." The vast sum of twelve and a half billions a year, or fifty billions in four years, is almost beyond comprehension. If this amount were in silver dollars placed side by side, they would make a pavement seven feet wide extending entirely around the world.



During the period to which I have referred, the people of the United States appropriated \$19.72 out of every \$100 of their total income to meet the expenditures of government—national, state, and local.

There can be little wonder then at the present universal demand that public expenditures of all sorts shall be materially decreased. What will be the influence of this movement on the schools? Are they proving, under present expenditures, to be a greater financial burden than they ought to be? To what extent, if any, and in what way, should the expenditures now made on education be cut down? Do the elementary schools cost too much? Are we spending too much on secondary schools or on public institutions of higher learning? These questions are vital to the program and progress of education during the next ten years and call for serious study at the present time.

Let us approach the problem by considering what has been the growth first in attendance, and secondly, in costs of the various forms of public education during the thirty-year period beginning in 1890 and closing in 1920. The general population of the United States during this period increased 68 per cent. For every hundred persons in 1890, there were 168 in 1920. The growth in the elementary and secondary schools combined was 139 per cent or 239 pupils in 1920 to every 100 in 1890. The growth in the high schools alone was 986 per cent; that is, for every 100 high school pupils attending in 1890, there were 1,086 in 1920. In the colleges and universities, both public and private, there was an increase in attendance of 432 per cent during this period, or 532 students in 1920 to every 100 in 1890. In brief, the elementary and high schools combined grew approximately two times, the high schools alone 14.4 times, and the colleges and universities, 6.3 times as rapidly as the general population during this thirty-year period. The growth of the high schools and colleges was truly phenomenal. The total enrollment in the high schools in 1890 was but 202,983; in 1920 it was 2,199,386. There were but 67,094 men and women enrolled in all American colleges and universities, both public and private, in 1890. In 1920 this number had increased to 356,694. Moreover, the growth both in the high schools and the colleges was accelerated during this period, being much more rapid during the last than during the first and second decades. As late as 1910 only 5.1 per cent of all children enrolled in the public elementary and high schools combined were found in the high schools. In 1915

this number had increased to 6.7 per cent of the total, and in 1920 to 10.2 per cent.

It is important as bearing upon the solution of the problem to note also that the growth in the public schools was much greater and its acceleration more rapid than was true of the private schools during the period. In the elementary schools the ratio of public to private enrollment remained almost constant. In 1890 nearly 92 per cent of the children in elementary education were in the public schools. In 1920 there were not quite 93 per cent. Sixty per cent of the total high school enrollment in 1890 was in the public high schools, while in 1920 the number had increased to 90.6 per cent of the total enrollment. In the colleges and universities a similar change has taken place. In 1890 only 32 per cent of all college students were in public institutions, and 68 per cent in privately endowed colleges and universities, while in 1920, 60 per cent of all college students were in public institutions, and only 40 per cent in private. From these facts of growth it is evident, not only that there has been an enormous increase in the number of students seeking secondary and higher education during the last thirty years, but also that the demand has been much greater upon the public than upon the private agencies of education. Has this growth been a natural one, due to causes that will continue to operate, or has it been stimulated by artificial means? Is the remarkable development of the last quarter of a century likely to be repeated during the next? And if so, will the demand continue to be increasingly heavy on the agencies of public education?

Since the economic capacity of the public to support such a system of education will have much to do with the answer to these questions, let us consider for a moment what increases have occurred in the costs of education during this thirty-year period. In 1890, the United States as a whole spent on elementary and secondary education \$140,506,000—and in 1920, \$1,045,053,000. In other words, for every dollar spent on education in 1890, we were spending \$7.44 in 1920. This was certainly an enormous increase. Was it greater than it should have been? This can not be decided until we have considered the various influences that have operated to produce this increase.

As already pointed out, the attendance in elementary and secondary schools in 1920 was 239 per cent of what it was in 1890. If this had been the only change that had occurred during the period, all other factors remaining constant, the expenditure on elementary and second-

ary schools in 1920 would have been approximately \$335,000,000. But the actual expenditure was over \$1,045,000,000. The reports of the United States Bureau of Labor show that the purchasing power of the dollar in 1890 was exactly equal to that of \$3.00 in 1920. Therefore, multiplying \$335,000,000 by three to obtain the equivalent of this amount in the money of 1920, we get \$1,005,000. This then, is what we should have spent in 1920 if all other conditions except the increased attendance and the purchasing power of the dollar had remained the same. On this supposition we actually spent about \$40,000,000 more in 1920 than we should have spent. But these \$40,000,000 were dollars of 1920; dividing by three to reduce them to dollars of 1890 we get a difference of  $13\frac{1}{3}$  millions. This difference was spread over approximately 2,600,000,000 days of school attendance. We, therefore, actually spent in 1920 only one-half a cent per day per child more than we were spending in 1890. This certainly does not indicate extravagance, unless we were spending too much in 1890 or the improvements in education since that time are not worth as much as one-half cent per day per child. No sane man will admit that either of these claims is correct. Moreover it must be observed that this one-half cent per day per child applied to both elementary and high-school attendance.

Let us consider then the cost of elementary schools alone, to determine whether the burden of their support was heavier than it should have been. As we have already pointed out, the period from 1890 to 1920 was the period of the greatest high-school development in our educational history, during which the high schools increased from 1.6 per cent of the total attendance in 1890 to 10.2 per cent in 1920. Therefore, when we consider that it costs more than twice as much to keep a child in high school for a day as it does in the elementary, and that the increased attendance in the elementary schools took place very largely in the upper grades, which costs more than the lower grades, we find that we were actually spending less real value per day per child on our elementary schools in 1920 than we were in 1890. If then, we consider the enormous improvement that has taken place in courses of study, efficiency of instruction, regularity of attendance, medical inspection, provision for atypical children, and the better education of teachers, we must conclude that we are by no means, spending as much as we should on the elementary schools of the United States as a whole.

Can as much be said for the high schools? Here as already indicated, expenditures have enormously increased representing at the close of the period more than 25 per cent of the total expenditures on all public education below college grade; the actual cost of the high schools in 1920 being \$278,179,000. Financially then, it must be admitted that the high schools are a burden of considerable magnitude, but is it greater than it ought to be? There are many persons who think that it is. A member of the board of trustees of a great eastern college said to a friend of mine recently, that he thought the high schools and colleges of the United States are committing a great crime by encouraging boys and girls to attend them who ought not to be there at all, and that a great many persons who might become efficient and happy in the trades and industry are being ruined by the attempt to prepare them for professional careers, for which they are by nature totally unfit. He further stated that if he could have his way about it, all high schools maintained at public expense would be discontinued. If such an indictment as this can be in any sense justified, at least one of two things must be true. Either there are children in the high schools at present, who ought not to be there at all, and the attendance is much larger than it ought to be on this account, or else we are not realizing to the people a proper return for their money in educating those that do attend.

Are there then, too many children in the high schools? The answer is a decided negative. The remarkable growth of the public high school has not been due to artificial causes, but is a natural development arising out of conditions in our present civilization that are certain to continue. The present competition among various occupations for the output of the high schools is and will continue to be exceedingly keen. The demand for those who have had, at least, as much as a high-school education is already far in excess of the actual supply, and it is coming to be increasingly evident that the high schools are destined to be, in the near future, the common schools of the American people. The figures that I have given, show that the public high school is rapidly coming to be a part of that education which is recognized as necessary to every citizen of normal mentality.

Unless we are willing to shut our eyes to the great causes that are producing the civilization of the present, we must recognize the fact that the gap that separates a child at birth from what we expect



him to be when he becomes a responsible citizen, is an ever increasing one. Far more must be demanded in the way of general education of all citizens if democracy, under present conditions, is not to be a failure. The possible benefits of present day civilization to the people in general are far in excess of what they have ever been before; but there is no way to enjoy these benefits without bearing the burdens which they impose. In practically every occupation and interest of life, science has added and is adding so much to our knowledge that in order that what is known may be of service, greater specialization in the professions and the most important vocations has become necessary. Consequently, longer and more extensive training must be required of those who are to apply this knowledge in the service of the people.

The field of medicine furnishes a good illustration. Scientific knowledge in this profession has so vastly increased, that the profession has been specialized into numerous subordinate ones, each of which requires for its successful practice, a more extensive general and professional education, as well as a more highly specialized technical training and skill than was formerly expected of medical men. To understand the demand which this development is now making on secondary and higher education, take the state of New York as a concrete illustration. A law was recently passed in that state advancing the qualifications hereafter to be required of all teachers, from two to three years of post high-school professional education. There are approximately 60,000 teachers in the State whose average tenure is less than seven years. This indicates that there is an annual turnover of about 8,500 teachers each year. In addition to this number, it is estimated that 1,500 new teachers are needed annually to take care of the increase in school population due to the growth of the general population and improved school attendance. Consequently, New York needs about 10,000 new teachers each year, each one of whom under the new law, must have had three years of professional education in addition to a standard four year high-school course. If these teachers are to be supplied by the normal schools of the state, these institutions will have to graduate 10,000 each year, and will need for this purpose to enroll, at least 12,000 high-school graduates annually, on account of the number that drop out during the course in the normal school.



There are about 230,000 high-school students in the state and approximately 24,000 graduates each year. Hence, to meet the requirements of the teaching profession alone, one-half of the entire output of the high schools is required. Moreover, information secured from the state department of education, shows that 40 per cent of all who are enrolled in the high schools are taking commercial courses of some kind. This indicates that 40 per cent of the 24,000 graduates are likely to enter commercial occupations. These together with those required by the teacher training agencies, make a total of 21,600, leaving only 2,400 of the high-school graduates annually for the colleges and for all other professions and occupations that demand a high-school education of those who enter them.

It is perfectly evident, therefore, that the present supply of high-school graduates is wholly inadequate, and that so long as an increasing number of occupations require a high-school education, the demand upon the high schools will continue to increase. It will certainly not be less than it is at present. If then, capable children of parents who are unable to pay the large tuition fees and other expenses of private schools of secondary grades are to have opportunity to enter and to serve in these occupations, it is obvious that the burden of their training must fall increasingly on the public high schools. So far then as the burden of supporting the high schools is due to the numbers attending, we must face the fact that it is not likely to grow less but rather greater in the years that are ahead of us.

Are we spending more than we should on those who do attend? Are the people receiving a maximum result in desirable educational products for every dollar spent in support of the high schools? This question cannot be so easily answered. It calls for a most earnest study of every element of cost and of the results that are actually obtained. It is altogether probable that such a study would reveal economies that may and ought to be made in any given high school. Just what the results of such a study may be is largely a local matter that cannot be very well determined by a more or less academic study of the work and expenditures of the high schools in general, although such a study showing comparative costs and results would certainly be of very great value.

The real solution, however, must be worked out, as I have said, by each high school and each local community by itself.

## FOURTH SESSION

The fourth meeting of the convention was held in the Cameo Room of Hotel Morrison. The President called the session to order at 9:17 a. m. Wednesday, February 27, 1924. PROFESSOR B. H. BODE, OF OHIO STATE UNIVERSITY, COLUMBUS, OHIO, read his paper, *Democracy and Education*.

## DEMOCRACY AND EDUCATION

PROFESSOR B. H. BODE, OHIO STATE UNIVERSITY, COLUMBUS, OHIO

Some years ago a discerning critic, of foreign birth and training, made the statement that the American people, despite their apparent practicality and hardheaded devotion to gainful pursuits, are, at bottom, intensely idealistic in thought and conduct. In support of this contention he pointed to the outstanding items of our national faith, viz., belief in education, belief in women, and belief in democracy. These are the axioms of our national life, the eternal and immutable foundations of our thought and action.

It is not my purpose to question the correctness of this gratifying interpretation. I do not wish to make comparisons, but to consider the attitude or state of mind that lies back of these three articles of faith. When we turn our attention to this background, we soon discover that these three are one. They are simply different expressions of the faith that all men are created free and equal and that all are entitled to life, liberty, and the pursuit of happiness.

This discovery, however, is but the beginning of our inquiry. This underlying attitude, which we call the democratic attitude and which we like to regard as the key to the interpretation of our national history and our national purposes, is enveloped in a haze of obscurity and ambiguity. What is the meaning of democracy? The language of the Declaration of Independence does not constitute an interpretation, but a slogan; of inestimable value indeed as a rallying cry, but infected, too, with the dangers that pertain to slogans. There are occasions when slogans are indispensable, but if they are permitted to become substitutes for thinking, they develop grave potentialities for evil.

It is necessary to analyze the concept of democracy in order to distinguish between the essential and the unessential when we undertake to embody democracy in social practice. But if the average American is questioned as to the meaning of the democracy in which he believes so implicitly, he soon becomes restless and incoherent. Perhaps the word suggests rule by the majority and the right to vote. Or it may call up a mental picture of Jefferson riding up to the capitol and tying his horse to the fence, on the occasion of his inauguration as President of the United States. Or it may symbolize the type of person who slaps his neighbor on the back and calls him an "old horse." "Mother, you are a good old scout," said a soldier in a letter from the front, a form of language which, as his mother remarked, was "so democratic." Again democracy is vaguely identified with personal liberty and equality of opportunity. Democracy, it seems, is a thing that expresses itself in many forms, but is not completely identified with any or all of them.

Our average citizen, then, sees at best as in a glass darkly and cannot report with precision on what he sees. This inability to define, however, is by no means incompatible with a deep conviction that democracy is something splendid and that the whole world must be made safe for it. Nor is this conviction without its justification. A person who has been nurtured in a great tradition can sense something of the mental attitude that has been fashioned by the great events and the great men of the past, even if he can not put it into words. He may call this heritage democracy or he may call it liberty; he may stress either government by the will of the majority or the right of the individual to live his own life, without undue interference from others; he may point either to the absence of special privilege, of artificial pomp and circumstance, or to the fact that every native born citizen may aspire to become President. In every case the underlying idea is the same, with certain variations of emphasis. It is the idea that democracy, like Boston, is a state of mind, that a democratically organized society seeks to protect the interest of all its members through joint responsibility and joint control.

All great ideals are exposed to the danger of strangulation by the very institutions and practices which they themselves have created. In the course of time these institutions and practices tend to impose themselves as ends instead of means, and they begin to demand a blind, half-superstitious reverence. We need to remind ourselves,

on occasion, that the great names of our history stand for something very different. The name of Benjamin Franklin tends to recall the teachings of *Poor Richard's Almanac*, full of wise saws and the spirit of Yankee shrewdness and thrift. But Franklin had a contribution to make to the life of the young nation that was of far greater importance. It was Franklin, who, by precept and by practice, taught his fellow countrymen that the Sabbath is made for man and not man for the Sabbath. "Vicious actions," he says, "are not hurtful because they are forbidden but forbidden because they are hurtful, the nature of man alone considered." In other words, a social organization is democratic in so far as institutions and practices are evaluated by their effects, "the nature of man alone considered." It is aristocratic in so far as the well-being of individuals is subordinated to some further end. Emerson tells us that "whoso would be a man must be a nonconformist," and he even says that "Good men must not obey the laws too well." And Lincoln warns us that "this is a world of compensation, and he who would be no slave must be content to have no slave. Those who deny freedom to others deserve it not for themselves, and under a just God, cannot long retain it."

These men were very far from being anarchists. They were too eminently practical to overlook the fact that liberty is law. But they also had a realizing sense that law is the expression of achieved adjustment, whereas life demands constant readjustment. "New occasions teach new duties"; and when these new occasions arise, the loyalty of yesterday may become a stumbling block and rock of offense. The old loyalty then becomes the enemy of the new. That was why Franklin was not content to accept loyalty to the king as final, why Emerson was unfriendly to the Fugitive Slave Law, why Lincoln would not accept the decisions of the Supreme Court as an unimpeachable guiding principle of his political conduct. If we have anything to learn from the "lessons of history," it is precisely that the issue of aristocracy versus democracy is simply a phase of the perennial struggle between established habits and vested interests on the one hand and the demands of an expanding life on the other. When democracy is identified with established forms it has ceased to be democracy. "The letter killeth, it is the spirit that maketh alive."

The essential thing, then, about democracy is its attitude. To identify democracy, as Bryce does, with "the rule of the whole people



expressing their sovereign will by their votes" is to invite the danger of accepting the form for the substance. Forms are important only in so far as they become a means for cultivating a democratic attitude. In so far as the franchise, for example, fosters the disposition to consider public questions from the point of view of all the interests concerned, and to assume personal responsibility for the public weal, it becomes an embodiment of democracy. But in so far as it becomes simply an expression of personal advantage or of class interest, it is inimical to democracy. Again, our efforts to secure equality of opportunity through education are in the interests of democracy in so far as they promote the realization that individual opportunity is linked up with social responsibility. If this realization is not secured, we are simply training up prospective pirates and cutthroats. A true democracy meets the present occasion and the present duty in such a way as to provide for adjustment to new occasions and new duties.

The discussion, so far, has attempted to give prominence to the elements that must be recognized in an attempt to give a definition of democracy. These elements are: (1) that our tradition of democracy is a larger and more vital thing than any set mode of conduct through which it may have found expression in the past, (2) that democracy is an embodiment of the demand for the fullest possible expression of native capacity in the individual, and (3) that this expression of native capacity must come through co-operation based on mutual recognition of interests and through progressive modification of institutions and practices. Democracy, then, may be defined as *a social organization that aims to promote co-operation among its members and with other groups on the basis of mutual recognition of interests.*

This "mutual recognition of interests," however, requires comment and explanation. Our democracy is full of conflicting, and apparently irreconcilable interests. On the one hand we have an insistent demand for "personal liberty," for the right of the individual to live his life as he may see fit, as long as he accords the same privilege to others. Any interference with this demand is resented promptly as paternalism or narrow mindedness, or perhaps as socialism. But, on the other hand, there is an equally insistent demand that the individual must regulate his purposes and desires in accordance with the will of the majority. He is admonished to subordinate private interests to social welfare, and to cultivate a sense of social responsibility.



The failure to comply with this demand is denounced as individualism or anarchism. In such a state of affairs the wayfaring man is easily bewildered. He seems to be caught between His Satanic Majesty and the briny deep.

In education we find a somewhat parallel situation. Here we are met with the contention that individual differences must be sought out and cultivated, and that both content and method of teaching must be regulated by this fact. If we ignore or minimize individual differences, we are hopelessly behind the times. But we are also told that the schools must teach certain common elements regardless of differences in talents or preferences. Unless the mass of the people share in a common training, unless they cultivate common interests and common ideals, our democracy cannot survive. If we leave this consideration out of account, we become purveyors of fads, of soft pedagogy, perhaps of educational determinism. Such are the lines of reasoning that our educational leaders expound to us. The result of all this is a state of befuddlement, on the part of our teachers, which is as nearly complete as any set of professors could be humanly expected to make it.

It is clear that a guiding principle is needed. Democracy easily becomes a thing of forms that pinch and warp our common life. Patriotism then becomes a symbol of intolerance and heresy hunting, and "personal liberty" becomes synonymous with selfishness and license. Similarly education tends to oscillate between two extremes. On the one hand is the tendency to subordinate the individual to society, to train him in the passive acceptance of ideals and standards, and to make him proficient in the performance of specific activities or jobs. We look to society for ready made ideals and then drill these into the minds of the pupils. On the other hand there is the tendency to put all the emphasis on initiative and self-expression to the neglect of social sensitiveness, and to let the pupil construct his own curriculum as he goes along. In neither case do we get just the product that is required for a sound democracy.

The remedy, in both cases, is the same. In education, as in democracy, our fundamental concern should be with attitudes. As Chesterton puts it the only thing that is really important about a man is his philosophy of life. The measure for the value of our skills, our special courses of training, lies in the attitudes by which they are controlled and directed. It is in these attitudes, in the dispositions,

in the preferences, in the standards of value which are engendered, that the cardinal and enduring results of education must be sought. Unless these are of the right kind, all our professional efficiency in the training of pupils is of small account. There is the same tendency in education as in Americanization of striving for a product which, in proportion as it approaches the ideal rating of a hundred per cent, has become thoroughly immune to further growth.

At the present time the current in educational thinking is running strongly towards what we sometimes call scientific education. We have been seized with a passion for weighing and measuring and calculating. I do not deplore this tendency; on the contrary, I am convinced that much permanent good will result from it. In proportion as knowledge becomes more definite and precise, it becomes more effective for purposes of control. But along with this movement is a tendency to neglect the more important objectives in education. Our educational psychology is leaning strongly towards behaviorism, with the emphasis shifting more and more towards habit-formation and the mechanizing of conduct. A similar tendency seems to lie back of various proposals regarding curriculum construction and the uncritical use of achievement tests. We need to remind ourselves that it is no more important to fit the individual for a place in society than it is to train him for the work of reorganizing society; that education must not conserve the values of the past, but also function as an agency for progress and reform.

In the foregoing discussion I have tried to draw a parallel between democracy and education. The gist of the conclusion is that in both cases, we are primarily concerned with attitudes. Blind subservience to custom or to current opinion is as far removed from the spirit of democracy as selfish absorption in what we may be pleased to call personal liberty. Democracy means a pooling of interests,\* a recognition that institutions and practices are simply instruments for the cultivation of a common life. The same is true of education. A person is not educated simply because he can spell certain words correctly and can understand historical allusions, in newspapers and magazines, or in short, because he has been introduced to a certain body of information that constitutes the folklore of the tribe. Such training may be as lacking in the social spirit as a one-sided development of talents or of vocational interests. Ultimately the only safe

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\* cf. H. E. Buckholz, *Of What Use Are Common People*, Ch. II.

criterion for education is the disposition and ability to share in the experiences of others. It means an attitude of self-effacement, of absorption in the purposes of other people, which is nowhere exemplified more strikingly than in the reactions of children, whose readiness to take on the color of their environment (figuratively speaking) is known of all men. This attitude calls for much more than the cultivation of special abilities or aptitudes. It means an alert and active interest in the human significance of things, a readiness to judge from the standpoint and in the light of broad social contacts, a capacity for recognizing the interests of others. These are the things which constitute the mark of the truly cultured man and they are the only sound basis for democracy.

How is this result to be achieved? There can be no doubt that an ideal of this sort has important bearings on both the content and method of teaching, and in the administration of the school system. A discussion of these bearings is to be presented in the other papers on this program. There is no more urgent problem on our educational horizon at the present time than the clarification of the meaning and the implications of democracy. We have need of orientation, of an inclusive and national purpose, if the promise of our earlier history is to be fulfilled and if education is to prove equal to the responsibilities that have been placed in its care.

MR. MICHAEL H. LUCEY, PRINCIPAL OF JULIA RICHMAN HIGH SCHOOL, NEW YORK CITY, addressed the meeting on, *The Application of Democracy to the Organization and Administration of the High School*.

## THE APPLICATION OF DEMOCRACY TO THE ORGANIZATION AND ADMINISTRATION OF THE HIGH SCHOOL

PRINCIPAL MICHAEL H. LUCEY, JULIA RICHMAN HIGH SCHOOL,  
NEW YORK

Professor Bode in his paper on "Democracy and Education" has formulated the spirit of democracy so clearly and has shown its relation to education so skillfully that we may accept his interpretation as a working charter for our high schools. He has taken us back to the ideals of the framers of the Declaration of Independence and of the Constitution; he has pointed out that democracy is an attitude

toward our fellow men; that individual growth, freedom and happiness can come only through recognition of and co-operation with our fellow men, and that the fundamental ideals and problems of democracy and education are the same. He has shown that while the principles of democracy are unchangeable, the forms through which it operates must be modified to fit the expanding life of a free people.

The spirit of democracy expresses itself in various ways. One of its most interesting manifestations in the last quarter century has been the growth of our secondary schools. In 1890 there were nearly 300,000 pupils enrolled, while in 1920 there were more than 2,300,000. While the total population of the country did not double itself during this period, the high-school enrollment increased over seven fold. This flow of pupils to our high schools has brought many perplexing problems which call insistently for solution. It has tapped lower social, economic, and mental levels. It has caused us to re-examine our aims; to question our subject matter and methods of procedure; to attempt a more careful study of the needs and abilities of the individual pupils; to consider how we may make two pupils sit, if not grow, where only one grew before.

The American people are relying in increasing measure on the public schools for the solution of these and other problems of democracy. We cannot take the course in vogue in many European countries of definitely recognizing social classes and organizing systems of schools for each. You may recall that before the war Germany practically wiped out poverty mainly by training her workers and her leaders in separate schools. Each child of the former class was trained for a definite occupation, usually that of the parent. This we cannot do if we hold to our democratic ideal. In this country the lines of social cleavage run vertically rather than horizontally. The road to advancement must be kept open to the humblest of our citizens. This freedom of choice, this opening of the door of opportunity, results in much economic waste and social wreckage. Boys who would make excellent plumbers insist on being surgeons, while those who with zeal and diligence might reasonably hope to acquire a house and lot insist on endeavoring to acquire a lease of the White House.

What then are we to do? We cannot coerce our pupils, and would not if we could. Rather as the representatives of a free people our duty is to help the young citizens of the republic to know, to find themselves. If, as Professor Bode states, democracy is an em-



bodiment of the demand for the fullest possible expression of the native capacity of each individual, then we must furnish the means and the opportunity for each individual to grow and to expand. This means an enriched curriculum. The meagre course of study which was adequate in the olden days for the children of the well-to-do preparing for leadership in business and the professions will no longer suffice. As all classes of American life, with their varied needs, capabilities and aspirations are represented every typical major activity of the community must also be represented. In addition to the usual academic subjects the schools must offer commercial, technical, industrial, home making, and allied courses.

This enriched curriculum necessitates more spacious and more costly buildings. As there is now much congestion, the problem of acquiring accommodations for all pupils is a serious one. About two years ago the present administration of New York City began a vigorous campaign to remedy this condition of affairs. As a result, there are now in course of construction eight high-school buildings with a total of 25,982 sittings, at a cost of \$20,827,309 for construction and equipment. In addition to this, plans are being prepared for twelve other new high-school buildings with 25,380 sittings at an estimated cost of \$22,700,000 for construction and equipment. This is not an isolated instance but is typical of the American attitude when the question of school construction and school costs is put squarely up to the citizens of the average community.

In a democratic school the extra curriculum activities play a large part. All of these activities in Julia Richman High School are under a general organization, the supreme student body of the school. Fundamentally, the association, or general organization, is a democratic organization seeking to give training in processes of good citizenship by teaching civic responsibility.

The administrative body of the general organization consists of a board of governors, composed of the principal and two teachers, and of the executive council, composed of student delegates elected by the student body and the faculty advisers. Members of the executive council conduct meetings according to parliamentary procedure, learn to respect the will of the majority, realize their responsibility as representatives, learn to prepare budgets, and handle funds economically, and are taught to discuss seriously questions that come before the



meeting. Such training is valuable inasmuch as it prepares for complete living in society.

Because the Julia Richman High School is housed in many annexes, each annex has its own individual chartered activities for the transaction of local affairs and these co-operate with the central office in conducting general school affairs such as pageants, commencements, etc. The following report shows the working of the student organization in one of our annexes:

"We continue to emphasize as the two most important thoughts in our school life, co-operation and democracy. As in recent years, we had the Student Council made up of G. O. Delegates, the officers of the 102nd Street Chapter of the G. O., captains of the traffic and lunch squads, and one representative from each section class. The members of this council were urged to feel their responsibility in leading their classes to co-operate in all the worth while activities of the school. At the council meetings, which were also attended by the head of the annex, the chairman of the personality committee and the faculty representative of the G. O., the members were asked to bring up any matters which they or their classmates thought might be considered for the general benefit of the school.

"Classes were encouraged to have rather thorough class organizations. Through these organizations, the social service league, the council, the traffic, lunch and assembly squads, the other occasional assignments of pupils to take charge of study halls or class rooms in the absence of teachers, we furnished considerable opportunity for the development of initiative, responsibility, and co-operation. We managed to involve a large percentage of all the girls in the annex in this type of work."

A school dedicated to equality of opportunity for all its students must, of necessity, make a thorough study of the native capacity of each one of them. In the last ten years American educators working on the foundations laid by Binet have made phenomenal progress along this line. While there is much controversy concerning the reliability and significance of mental tests, yet I believe that all progressive educators are agreed that they are one of the most important sets of tools placed at the disposal of school men during this generation. By means of these and other tests that are being devised, by a study of the records, by an attempt to get at home conditions, but

most of all by a careful, sympathetic observation of the reactions of the pupils to given situations, we must strive to know our pupils better.

Not only must the schools have an enriched curriculum and adequate physical accommodations, as noted before, but there must be adaptation of instruction in all subjects to the varying capacities of each pupil. Our traditional academic subjects, as well as our new so-called vocation subjects, must be brought before the bar of reason. The essential matter must be differentiated from the non-essential, and time schedules must be planned to meet the needs of groups of varying degrees of ability. How classification of this kind works out in actual practice may be noted from the following report by one of our annex heads:

"Not only have teachers adapted content and methods, but most of all, their manners, so to speak, to their girls. The tendency to find fault with a whole group because of poor work seems to have disappeared. The knowledge of actual lack of ability results in a kindly sympathetic treatment of any difficulty. We have had very distinctive class temperaments among these groups. The first low grade group, which we called '143,' was decidedly boisterous and fractious, not at all the dull sort that we had anticipated. Had we not known of their Otis test standing, we should have ascribed their poor work to general misbehavior and doubtless should have become unduly critical, instead of making allowances wherever possible."

As our pupils come from all kinds of homes, from all classes, and from varying nationalities, twenty-nine countries being represented in one group of seven hundred students recently studied in our school, we stress the importance of character and personality. As a result of a very thorough discussion of the matter by students and teachers, the following objectives were recently formulated:

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|--|--------------------------------------|
| 1. PERFECTION OF OUTWARD FORM OF PERSONALITY | 2. HABITS OF GOOD SCHOLARSHIP        |
| a. Good appearance.                          | a. Industry                          |
| b. Good health                               | b. Perseverance.                     |
| c. Cheerfulness                              | c. Knowledge of the value of time    |
| d. Low, pleasant voice                       | d. Ability to plan and organize work |
| e. Courtesy                                  |                                      |

## 3. PERFECTION OF INNER CHARACTER

- a. Honesty
- b. Modesty
- c. Courage

## 4. TRAINING IN SOCIAL, BUSINESS AND CIVIC RELATIONS

- a. Consideration of the rights and problems of others
- b. Self-control.
- c. Co-operation
- d. Initiative or leadership

If we accept Professor Bode's theory that the development of native capacity of each individual must come through co-operation based on mutual recognition of interests, we must radically change our methods of teaching. As an inheritance from the academic, college preparatory schools of the past, we tend to emphasize a static, a receptive, an individualistic, a so-called learning attitude on the part of our pupils. We have need to encourage dynamic, active, co-operative, creative tendencies for it is only in this way that our pupils can learn that individual development and social welfare are not separate entities, but inseparable conditions of a successful life in a democratic country.

This is no new doctrine for it has for years been in successful operation on the football field, the baseball field, the debating room—in fact, in all activities which are largely under student control. Can we not learn from our pupils and bring some of the lessons from the football field into our class rooms? Time does not permit a development of this topic, but I would refer you to a master workman in this field who actually did what we hope to do and whose labors are described in a book entitled "Sanderson of Oundle."

What of the teachers in this school devoted to the democratic ideal, for they are, after all, the heart of the school—those who give it life and vitality. We attempt to enlist the active, creative thought of each teacher in advancing the regular class room work of the school. The following circular letter was sent at the beginning of the term to the teachers as a working plan for the first teachers' conference:

- "1. What special points do you intend to emphasize this term?
- "2. What new problems or experiments do you plan to take up this term?
- "3. What old problems still demand special attention?

"4. What is the best recent book on the teaching of your subject?

"5. What, in your opinion, is the best recent book dealing with general educational matters?"

I give the following report of a chairman as indicative of the spirit of the teachers:

"I have just returned from visiting seven teachers in two buildings. In each instance I found a teacher genuinely interested in her task, doing things with freshness, energy, and vision. This is a happy augury for the report of the third year of work in the department.

"The summary submitted here is more typical than exhaustive; where one teacher is mentioned as doing a specific thing, two or more other teachers could be named as well. The English department, too, is not exceptional but merely typical of the school; it draws its breath in an air of helpfulness."

One of the greatest tragedies both in schools and in industry is that of unstretched faculties, of atrophied talents. In the Julia Richman High School we consciously seek out talent and encourage it. In addition to their class room work, teachers volunteer or are assigned to take charge of intelligence tests, athletics of various kinds, assembly programs, personality and character work, publications, school organization, college entrance requirements, and a hundred and one other activities that crop up in a large school. They are given power, and are then held responsible for results. This work is carried on in a spirit of cheerfulness and good will for it is free and creative. The teachers adapt much the same attitude toward their students.

One of the best instances of the working of the democratic organization in the Julia Richman High School is the faculty council. This council is composed at present of three committees of teachers—one on pensions, one on salaries, and one on organizations. These committees are elected annually by the faculty of the school and they in turn elect their own chairman. The specific job of this council is to consider, investigate, and give recommendations upon all problems affecting the teachers through other than official channels. Thus, this council considers the claims made by several of the teachers' organizations for membership. These claims are threshed out in council meeting and recommendations for or against membership are then made to the regular monthly teachers' meeting. For example, there was a recent movement to secure actuarial estimates on the cost of changing part of the pension system. Appeals were made to the schools

from various quarters to contribute money for this investigation. In the Julia Richman High School these appeals were considered by the faculty council and one of them was strongly recommended by the teachers. As a result of this recommendation nearly one hundred per cent of the teachers of the school contributed to the fund. No other committee secured any funds from the school for this purpose. The faculty council is now investigating other teachers' associations to determine their claims upon the time and money of the teachers of the school.

As a result of the method by which the faculty council is selected and the way in which it gives a fair hearing to all matters affecting the teachers, it is gaining the confidence of the teachers of the school. There is no pressure from any official source upon the decisions of the council. The principal has been in hearty accord with its work. The chairman of the council is controlled by the council itself and not by any official, and the council in turn is controlled by the teachers of the school. It relieves teachers from feeling that this or that movement among them is sponsored by this or that official and that it would be the policy of wisdom to contribute their time and their money to such a movement. It is an example of democracy in action in a large high school.

MR. THOMAS J. McCORMACK, PRINCIPAL OF LA SALLE-PERU TOWNSHIP HIGH SCHOOL, read his paper, *The Philosophy of the "Forgotten Man."*

## THE PHILOSOPHY OF THE "FORGOTTEN MAN"

*A Paper on the "Application of Democracy to the Social Studies"*

THOMAS J. McCORMACK, PRINCIPAL OF THE LASALLE-PERU TOWNSHIP HIGH SCHOOL, LA SALLE, ILLINOIS

Never in the history of the world has there been so much talk about something that superficially does not exist—democracy. Rivers of ink, gales of eloquence flow and blow about a theme, the body of which perpetually vanishes. The thing in which we believe, the substance of the dream we hope for, melts before the inquisitive touch. The reality is never reached; but our faith always abides, and the vision is ever pursued. The situation is big with paradox.



What are the facts? Democracy as a structure or order does not exist politically, socially, ethically, economically, or biologically. As government, autocracy, frank and unabashed, now prevails in the major part of the world. Oligarchies rule openly, even in republics. Democracy in commerce, industry, and the professions, has become a synonym for "the cult of incompetence." Nor is it otherwise in the field of literature, science, art, and ethics. "The poet is born not made." Saint and scientist come to flower by the grace of God. Nature mocks nurture. Education does not create; it only classifies and sorts. The school is simply a colossal Calvinized sieve for the automatic separation of the elect from the damned. The salted remnant alone inherits the cultural patrimony of the ages, and the intelligent minority alone remains civilized and always remains a minority. Sociology and psychology, the servants of biology, have, by the doctrine of native and immutable individual differences, placed the seal of science on these varied expressions of indisputable facts, and democracy, shorn of its bone and its sinews, its flesh and its blood, now stands forth in shadowy reminiscent solitude, a baseless impalpable fabric—an attitude, a state of mind, as Professor Bode has so aptly and magisterially defined it.

These are the facts. "Next to statistics," said Lord Canning, "the most unreliable things in the world are facts." In education the significant thing is the human susceptibility of the facts. Education, like its sister sciences and techniques, sociology, history, and politics, is a human science or technique, a science of meanings and of values, of ends, purposes and ideals, which we ourselves largely create. It is mainly and characteristically a science of final causes, as distinguished from mechanics, physics, chemistry, and perhaps biology, which are sciences of antecedent causes. With us the ideal reigns supreme, the ideal that beckons to us from the future and not the brute fact that prods us from behind.

And in our field of teaching there is another Fact (which I will write with a capital letter) that for us is of far more importance than the results of cold research. It is this, that men are influenced more by their feelings and convictions about facts than they are by the facts themselves. The trouble is not with evolution, for example; the trouble is with Mr. Bryan. With one wave of his magic tensor-wand, Einstein eliminated the physical ether from science; but who will eliminate Sir Oliver Lodge and Sir Arthur Conan Doyle—knights of the

spiritual ether? Belief and faith, error and prejudice are more potent in the field of human and social control than the established and unequivocal data of science. With us who teach, administer, or construct the social studies, the significant and very disturbing fact is that *Demos*, the people, does not accept the analytical conclusions of biology and of its interpretative sisters, sociology and psychology. We are asked to teach predestination, economic and biologic; and *Demos* believes in free-will. *Demos believes in education, and we educators do not believe in education.* I have put the problem in popular paradoxical form. Personally I am conscious of the logical fallacy involved. But, wrong or right, the statement summarizes the central difficulty of instruction in the social sciences, in so far as these sciences make for citizenship, ethical, social, and vocational control, and seek to formulate acceptable working ideals for the people.

Individualism, in its variant forms is the obstacle, *and* the truth. "Every man," said Kant, "is an end in himself, and not a means to the ends of other men." "No man ever yet hated his own flesh, but nourisheth and cherisheth it." Each one of us is unique, irreplaceable; each one of us has occurred only once in history and will never occur again. We feel ourselves to be persons, and not simply fodder for economic and civic mills. We ask for fulfilment. We hunger for the immortal civic life, we crave social immortality, we ask for the completion of our personalities, whatever their meagerness, whatever their limitations. We, too, are the goals of the universe. We, too, would live in Arcady. And this hunger for the recognition of personal worth *Demos* shares ravenously and rabidly with the elect of the intellect and the chosen sovereigns of biologic and psychologic grace. *Democracy is the philosophy of despair of "the forgotten man."*

Can we not see we are here in the realm of unreason, of emotion? It is not the realm of natural science with its generalities, its universals, its abstractions, its bare bones and its desiccations. We are not in the realm of electrons, of atoms and molecules and radio activities, of ids and gemmules and plasms. We are in the realm of human life, with its wishes and hopes, its instabilities and unbalances, its errancies and its imprevisions, its chaos, and its despair. Democracy is a faith, and life all faith, it is irrational and flies in the face of facts. Tortured on the Procrustean rack of reality, it is still defiant and exultant, even in death. "Turn me," said the Christian martyr calmly to the

Roman prefect watching him roast on the heated gridiron, "turn me, this side is done." "Turn him, turn him," says *Demos* to the modern inquisitor rolling his child-victim on the psychological spit, "turn him, his I. Q. is done."

To democracy, truth is not conformity to the facts. Truth is an emergent from the facts; it rises above facts, manipulates and moulds facts to conform to ideals, to rationalized desire. Truth is not what is, but *what ought to be*. This is the classical method of all architects of the social fabric, of all forgers of social structure. Before the insistence of life, science—social science—bows.

Time and again economic science has proved that there is not enough wealth in the world to give to every man his just quota of the comforts and luxuries of civilization. *Demos* smiles, continues to demand higher wages, and the level of the comforts of life rises despite economic theory, which afterwards meekly explains this new fact. Biology declares that education will never remove the obstacles presented by the fact of individual differences, that aristocracy of brains, of ethical and aesthetic talent, of manual skill and social address, is inherited, fundamental, and incommunicable. *Demos* again smiles, smiles incredulously and exasperatingly, points to the fact that Beethoven's father was a drunkard, and his mother a consumptive; that Gauss was the son of a mason; Pasteur of a forgotten mountaineer; that Liszt sprang from the Hungarian rabble; and the theory of heredity again revises its facts\* and propounds the beautiful metaphysical doctrine of Plato that "genius is a divine release from the common ways," that we are every mother's son of us packages of divinity, and that to attain terrestrial immortality it is only necessary for some psychiatrist to unlock the combination. And like the dying apostate Emperor Julian to the figure of Christ, Science says to *Demos*, "Galilean, thou hast conquered."

How can this insistence, this driving urge and craving for personal fulfilment be stilled, how sated? It cannot be sated, it must be sublimated. We need science—social science—to effect the proper rectifications; need logic—social logic—and clear human thinking to compose these yawning contradictions. No mere knowledge of history, no mere knowledge of sociology and economics, no dead in-

\* See Bateson "Heredity"—Australia meeting of the British Association for the Advancement of Science, Aug. 14 and 20, 1914 (Smithsonian Inst. Report, 1915).

formation about government will suffice. We are here before the primal abyss of human nature. The creation of the ethical or social man is at stake—a creation *which is the task of psycho-social technique and not a problem of class room instruction.*

Till such a technique is formulated and established as the basis of our social studies curriculum, we must depend upon outward instructional approximations. Such approximations are afforded by social ethics, which is the science of normative ideals, of the standards and criteria of normative social control, culminating in techniques of conduct and social function calculated to realize in concrete form the rationalized longings of humanity.

We are here in the realm of norms,—of norms that determine the values that ought to constitute the life of the full-flowered ethical and civic personality. What these values and norms are it is our business to learn and then teach. We who know, or at least who know more than the ignorant, must fearlessly construct the objectives which reason and science dictate. We must put spine and purpose into our teaching. We must not ask the people what they want, we must tell the people what they want (just as the *Chicago Tribune* and the Hearst newspapers do). Education is always propaganda in the noblest sense of the word. "Begin by taking holy water," said Pascal, "and you will end by becoming a believer." It is for us to set up the fonts of the sacred waters of democracy and to sprinkle the recalcitrant. The forms, the structures, the functions will follow automatically.

But let us teach the whole truth. If individual differences are immutable, so is the hunger of the individual for self-realization immutable. The solution must do justice to both facts. Let us construct a philosophy based on some scientifically elaborated theory of *functional* equality, such as Dr. Albion Small has suggested, and show how in this way personality and social worth may be achieved within all normal limitations. Above all, let us teach daily that economic values are not the final values of life, that wealth and material things are only means to ends, that the goal of education is not to make more money but to enable us to extract from life all its glorious possibilities and by the alchemy of the inherited techniques of the ages to transmute economic man into a human being. This means the transvaluation of all our existing systems of values, and the sub-



ordinating of instruments and means, of matter and mechanisms to the genuinely human or ethical ends of existence. It means liberation from the existing slavery of things.

This is the great, the urgent task of modern social education. Not forms, not structures, not records, not institutions, are the essence of democracy, but that inward freedom which is the sole prerogative of the "forgotten man."

MR. E. E. SLOSSON, SECRETARY OF SCIENCE SERVICE, WASHINGTON, D. C., read his paper, entitled, *Science Teaching in a Democracy*.

### SCIENCE TEACHING IN A DEMOCRACY

EDWIN E. SLOSSON, DIRECTOR OF SCIENCE SERVICE, WASHINGTON, D. C.

The aim of the scientific investigator is to reduce the raw material of nature to a compact, impersonal, and permanent form, to extract from millions of miscellaneous facts a single and simple formula that is applicable to all similar cases. It is by means of this method that modern science has made such unprecedented progress.

But in freeing science from all traces of the historic and human alloy that has accumulated in the course of its development, its human interest has been lost. It requires long training to appreciate the significance and beauty of a mathematical formula. This depersonalized science is necessarily less attractive to the layman than literature, art, and history with their predominant personal element.

Therefore, if we want to interest the unscientific mind, of either adults or children, we usually have to re-introduce the human element that has been so sedulously eliminated from abstract science. This may best be done, in my opinion, by showing how science influences the life and thought of the world in the past, present, and future. In regard to the past this means a rewriting of the history of the world from a scientific standpoint. Not the mere "history of science"; not the rehearsal of the crude guesses and mistakes of the pioneers of science; not the tracing out of all the blind alleys into which they have entered in their search for the one true way out of the maze; not the cultivation of admiration for their aims and achievements. There is no reason to think that Pasteur or Roger Bacon takes any pleasure



in our celebration of his birthday. But what needs to be brought out is how a single scientific discovery may transform everyday life, industrial conditions, international affairs, and the prevailing mode of thinking. The same thing can be shown in regard to the present and the future.

Scientists have hitherto been too modest and too humble in claiming credit for what they have done and can do in the control of human affairs. They have allowed statesmen, writers, and financiers to take all the praise for advances in civilization and the amelioration of living conditions that were really due to scientific research. Scientists have hitherto been content to serve mankind without attempting to guide it. They have provided new powers for destruction and construction without saying how they should be used. I venture to say that in the future science will have something to say about the conduct of life, as well as provide the means of living.

The world, like a child at Christmas, accepts with pleasure, if not with gratitude, the material gifts of science—metals and movies, railroads and radio, foods and fine raiment. But the world turns a deaf ear when science would talk about peace, order, economy, foresight, efficiency, and the frank facing of facts.

The practical and industrial value of science, on which Bacon had to insist so strongly three hundred years ago, is now acknowledged by all. The value of research is generally recognized. What most needs emphasis today is the human side of science. The world needs to understand what scientific training does to the mind of man.

The antagonists of scientific education do not question the achievements of applied science, they do not object to the pursuit of pure science, they do not deny the practical advantages of elementary scientific education. What they do question is the esthetic, intellectual, and moral benefit of scientific training; that it can stimulate the imagination, broaden the sympathies, clarify the mind and elevate the character. In short they challenge the cultural value of science. Music, we know, has a value to those who are not musicians, architecture to those who are not architects, poetry to those who are not classical professors. Has science any such value to those who are not its professional practitioners? This is what was to be demonstrated and has not yet been demonstrated to the satisfaction of the world at large. It must be admitted that some of those who have taken scientific courses with A grades do not show in their character

and mental attitude any evidence of beneficial effects from the information acquired. It is of course admitted on the other side that some classical students never get an inkling of the cultural value of their studies, though, if I ventured to give any figures as to the percentage, I should get into trouble.

It is partly because science teachers have neglected the humanistic side of scientific studies that we now again hear demands for a return to the "humanities," meaning mostly by that the atrocities of the Trojan, Gallic, and Peloponnesian wars. But however we may think the two types of studies compare in regard to intrinsic and possible cultural influence, it must be acknowledged that classical and literary studies are more commonly taught with a view of exerting such influence, while this side of the science is frequently ignored in the class room and unappreciated by the world outside.

Not long ago I was in the study of the head of the biological department of one of our colleges when he said to me: "You are going about the country a good deal, can't you help me get a professor of zoology?"

I replied that that ought to be easy.

"No," he said, "I have been trying to find one for the last three years. You see I want a zoologist of very unusual qualifications."

"What sort of a man do you want?" I asked.

"I want a professor of zoology who knows something about animals. But the universities don't seem to be turning out such nowadays. I can get a man who knows all about the hydrogen ion concentration of the blood, or who can count the chromosomes, or who is familiar with museum specimens, but they do not seem to be acquainted with animals that are alive and whole."

So it seems that the present policy of specialization, marvelously successful as a method of research, has been carried so far as to remind one of the study of the elephant by the blind men. The one who touched the side reported that the elephant was "very like a wall." The one who embraced the leg concluded that the elephant was "very like a post." The one who was entangled in the trunk said that the elephant was "very like a snake," and so forth. These investigators were all quite correct, yet it would have been better if they all could have got a glimpse of the beast as a whole before beginning their specialized researches.

So, too, it seems to me advisable to give our pupils a glimpse of nature in its wholeness before we begin to partition it among the several sciences. It is the custom at hotel dinners to bring in the roast turkey or the planked steak and exhibit it in its entirety to the guests before it is carved up into portions for the particular plates where it is to be still further reduced by each to masticable morsels.

The slicing up of a subject into separate sciences is as necessary a preliminary to its complete assimilation as is the carving of a turkey. But both processes are irreversible reactions. It is difficult to get from the consideration of hash an integral idea of what creature supplied the meat.

So it is too much to expect that students who are kept exclusively to the study of dissected subjects should be able unaided to reconstruct the complete original. We should at least allow them a glimpse of it before we cut it up for them. The whole is equal to the sum of its parts, but the summation process is difficult, quite beyond the intellectual capacity of many of our pupils, who therefore pass through life without ever having reconstructed the unity of nature out of the diversity of the curriculum. Their map of the world is a dissected map and they do not always realize that the world is a whole and that the divisions are, like the boundary line of countries, the arbitrary and artificial inventions of man. When we look at a map of Europe the parti-colored countries look as natural and immutable as the mountains and rivers. Yet we know that their boundaries are accidental, due to the fortunes of war and royal marriages. France, Germany, Belgium, and Italy are now very definite entities, yet it might easily have happened that none of these names should appear on the modern map. We might see instead such names as Normandy, Burgundy, Brabant, and Savoy, which would in that case appear to us as the natural and inevitable nations. Or if Charlemagne had had only one son we might see today Germans and French a single people, unitedly resisting any attempts to dismember their nation.

So, too, it might have happened that there should be no sciences by the name of chemistry or biology, paleontology or sociology, and yet the fields covered by these well defined and self-conscious sciences might have been quite as thoroughly cultivated as now. It was natural and inevitable that science should split up into sciences as that Europe should separate into nations. Yet the existing divisions are not natural

and inevitable, but are largely accidental and altogether artificial. There are no lines in nature, as the artists learned long ago.

A plant does not belong to botany exclusively. It belongs as well to physics, to chemistry, to astronomy, to meteorology, to dietetics, to economics, to esthetics, and other sciences too numerous to mention. All the sciences have an undivided interest in the living plant, but if any one tries selfishly to separate its share, all it gets is a lifeless abstraction.

These are obvious observations but they are not trite. I have heard faculties wrangle for hours over whether a student had taken a properly balanced course, meaning by that so much botany, so much zoology, so much chemistry, and so much physics. This is much the same as if they had insisted that the student spend so many hours east of the 100th meridian and so many west of this imaginary line. Their aim is to insure that the students get various forms of training, but this cannot be told from the classifications in the catalog. According to this all chemistry courses are counted the same, but *Chem. II* may be laboratory work, teaching handiness of the hands like manual training, while *Chem. XIV*, dealing with the mechanics of the atom, is a branch of higher mathematics.

The separate sciences, like the separate countries, have now a real and definite existence, however accidental their origin, and their divisions cannot be ignored, however artificial and confusing they may be. But the more the nations multiply the more need for internationalism. The more the sciences proliferate the greater the necessity for emphasis on the duty of the organism. Europe with its dozen new countries is said to be suffering from Balkanization. Some of our students suffer from Balkanization of the brain.

This is not due to an overdose of specialization but to a deficiency of generalization. It is particularly important that the growing child get the vitamin of generalization. Kindergartners used to think that because children had little fingers they should be set at fine work. Nowadays the theory and practice is reversed; the larger muscles are used first. Children begin by writing on the blackboard where they can use the whole-arm movement. The mental development seems to follow the order of the muscular, starting with whole-arm movements of thought and coming down gradually to the minutest investigation. The early years of adolescence are the period of sweeping generalization, of cosmical theorizing, of wild speculation, of un-



bounded ambition. Doubtless this tendency of the adolescent mind to enlarge its orbit has to be held in check lest it run off on a tangent and arrive nowhere. Yet like other natural tendencies it should be guided rather than thwarted. A study of the biographies of great scientists shows that many of the most important revolutionary generalizations of science have been conceived in youth, often in the latter teens or early twenties, though it required a lifetime of labor to substantiate them. One of the factors in scientific progress, the free formation of bold hypotheses, is allied to the creative capacity of the artists, musician, or poet, and normally appears at the same early age.

When the tourist comes into a strange city he generally takes the first opportunity to ascend the highest building in the place. The Washington Monument, the Woolworth building, the Eiffel tower or the Venetian campanile, to get a bird's-eye view of the whole city before he begins its study in detail. It cannot be denied that such a preliminary survey may correctly be called superficial. From such a height nothing is distinct and much is hazy. But if the stranger does not get such a general idea of the city at the start he is never likely to obtain it later by any process of combining his close-ups of individual squares and buildings.

The study introduced into the schools some years ago under the title of "general science" was designed to give the student such a bird's-eye view. It has become established in the curriculum, but it has not altogether fulfilled the expectations of its promoters. I cannot say who is to blame. The teachers say that it is the fault of the textbooks. The textbook writers say it is the fault of the teachers. But in either case the fault lies in the fact that general science has not yet quite found its field and that it is apt to be a collection of samples of the several sciences instead of a scientific survey of nature as a whole. The subject tends to fall apart along the cleavage planes of the conventional classification of the sciences which are to follow it.

If general science is to retain an honored and useful place in the schools it must maintain its own point of view, which is as legitimate as that of the several sciences. It is simply a question of the method of attack. There are two ways of cutting up a jelly-cake. One is horizontally, taking off layer by layer from the top to the bottom. The other is to cut down perpendicularly through all the layers. You get just as much cake in the latter case as the former, and even



a thin slice from top to bottom gives you a better knowledge of what the cake consists of than you can get from the most thorough mastication of a single layer. "A little knowledge is a dangerous thing" only when what little is known is inaccurate.

I have heard it said that no one person could know enough to teach general science. But if that is true, no one student is capable of acquiring it. There is admittedly a limit to the capacity of any human cranium, but what it shall be filled with is a matter of choice, "Study one thing thoroughly" is good advice, but what is the "thing"? May it not be a plant, an ant-hill, an automobile or a house, as well as the chemistry, the mechanics, the sociology or the microscopy of these and all other things? Aristotle or Alexander von Humboldt did not know so much about any one science as a grade C graduate of a modern college, but neither could be called "scatter-brained" or "shallow-pated." I feel sure that either Aristotle or Humboldt, if their information were freshened up a bit, could teach high-school general science in a way to win the respect of a university specialist.

The latest survey of science teaching in the secondary schools of the United States, that made by Dr. George W. Hunter of Knox College, shows that general science is coming into the first year of the four-year senior high school, biology in the second year and, usually, chemistry in the third and physics in the fourth. Teachers of the special sciences report that general science, properly taught, aids work by laying a broad foundation and serving as an orientation course at the entrance of the high school.

Formal learning is a tool. Its value depends on what is done with it. Give a jack knife to a boy and he may whittle wood or cut his fingers with it. The knife is neutral. Much of elementary education must be merely formal, the giving of tools to children. The three R's are nothing in themselves. They are merely the keys to the knowledge of good and evil. Whether they prove beneficial or injurious to the student depends on what use he makes of them. Reading the wrong books may make a man worse than an ignoramus. Learning writing may qualify him for forgery, and learning arithmetic for swindling. The value of a ship's load cannot be calculated by the inspection of the Plimsoll mark. The value of an education depends more on the character of the cargo than on the capacity of the cranium that carries it. Neither an information test nor an in-

telligence test can determine what the man's mind will be worth to the world.

In repeating these hackneyed observations I am not presenting an argument against the alphabet, but I am pleading for its proper employment. Illiteracy is always a bad thing but literacy may be an evil thing. I mention this here because educators, like everybody else, are apt to become so absorbed in methods that they do not think enough of results. Means always tend to overshadow ends. We need to pay more attention to what people read after they get through reading their readers. Opportunity does not insure progress.

Christian missionaries like Livingstone rejoiced over the opening up of Africa by commerce and communications because they naturally and naively assumed that it meant the spread of Christianity. On the contrary it led to an unprecedented spread of Mohammedanism, their most formidable foe.

If science teachers merely teach their students to use the appliances of science and fail to train them in the scientific way of thinking they may find the intellectual aims of science defeated by the machinery of science. The printing press contributes to the spread of superstition and obscurantism as well as to the spread of science. The newspapers publish a lesson in astrology more often than a lesson in astronomy. In our books and magazines fiction vastly outweighs fact. By means of the radio Voliva's argument for a flat earth is broadcasted from Zion City all round the world.

Science teachers in the secondary schools occupy a strategic position for influencing the thought of the nation. They give all the instruction in science that most of the people ever get and they have the first chance at those who go on to the university. Upon such science teachers therefore rests the responsibility of presenting science in the beginning in its integral and humanistic aspects. I venture to say that such a presentation gives the best foundation for future specialization and abstraction.

The science teacher has a double duty: (1) to train the student in a new way of thinking, and (2) to acquaint him with the mass of facts and laws that science has acquired, to see that he gets his share of the inheritance of the accumulated wisdom of the ages. No one can appreciate the aim and achievements of science unless he has had some practice in the experimental processes by which scientific

principles are discovered and established. Otherwise he will not be able to distinguish between genuine scientific discoveries and its pseudomorphs, the fakes, in after life. He will not know how to distinguish the man who knows from the man who pretends to know. This ability is more important in a democracy than anywhere else. The danger in an aristocracy is that the people will respect and follow those that are not worthy. The danger in a democracy is that the people will fail to respect and follow those who are worthy of such confidence. Envy of the expert is a common human failing. We none of us are free from the desire to look down on those who have the right to look down upon us. We all of us take a secret delight in the humiliation of our superiors and we rejoice in disclosing the ignorance of those who know more than we do. This natural human weakness becomes a public menace when it is multiplied by a million. It accounts for the votes cast against Aristides the Just and for the disposition to elect as our representatives not the leaders of men but average men. This does not matter much in ordinary political affairs, for politics is not yet a science and there are many ways of reaching the same result. In science there is only one truth but an infinitude of falsehoods. A problem has a single solution. An unwise popular vote on a political question may bring a temporary calamity upon a nation, but an unsound popular opinion on a scientific question may bring permanent ruin to a race. It would not have mattered much if the legislature of Indiana had passed the bill fixing a fictitious value of  $\pi$ , but it would have made lots of trouble if the engineers and mathematicians of the world had adopted the wrong figure. The fate of the nation depends less on how the people cast their ballots than on how they combine their chromosomes. If one of your pupils should become president, you would properly take pride in it but you would not have benefited the nation nearly so much as if you should train one of your boys so that he could discover how to kill the corn-borer or make synthetic gasoline. For, whoever is president, the corn-borer keeps on boring and the gasoline keeps on burning.

The main object of education in a democracy is not to teach the students how to vote right, but to train them how to think right. Under any form of government, in an autocracy no less than in a democracy, the real power lies in the people, and it is their individual conduct, guided by their personal beliefs, that determine whether the nation shall advance, stagnate, or retrograde. The most and the

best that any government can do to control the destiny of the nation is to provide a system of education such as will insure that every child has a chance to learn whatever is known about the world he is to live in and the consequences of his conduct. He should be taught how to steer his course by the fixed stars of fact, even though he may in after life prefer to follow a will o' the wisp or shut his eyes and plunge ahead blindly.

## FIFTH SESSION

The fifth session met in the Red Room of Hotel La Salle. This was a joint meeting of the National Association of the Secondary-School Principals with the National Federation of State High-School Athletic Associations. The meeting was called to order at 2:15 p. m. Wednesday, February 27, 1924.

The President of the National Association of Secondary-School Principals, Claude P. Briggs, introduced the President of the National Federation of State High-School Athletic Associations, George Edward Marshall, Principal of High School, Davenport, Iowa.

President Marshall in a few words presented the objects of the National Federation, in introducing the first speaker, MAJOR JOHN L. GRIFFITH, COMMISSIONER OF ATHLETICS, "BIG TEN" CONFERENCE, CHICAGO, ILLINOIS, who spoke from notes on *A Sane Program of Competitive Athletics*.

## A SANE PROGRAM OF COMPETITIVE ATHLETICS

COMMISSIONER OF ATHLETICS, MAJOR JOHN L. GRIFFITHS

We are asked to consider not only "A Program of Competitive Athletics" but "A Sane Program of Competitive Athletics." Educators are disturbed these days because not only our students but our citizens as well are devoting so much thought to school and college games and sports. I suppose this was in the minds of the committee that suggested the subject of this discussion. No one will deny that more people participated in athletics in 1923 than in 1916, that the newspapers devoted more space to sports last year than the year before the United States entered the World War, and that there were far more paid admissions at the games for the year that has just closed than for the twelve month period seven years earlier. It has been estimated that the annual sporting goods equipment business has multiplied three fold in the last few years.

One of the reasons for the impetus that has been given sports may be attributed to our war experience. When the thought of the nation was concentrated on the problem of selecting four million boys who were physically qualified to represent us in the struggle at arms, quite naturally we laid more stress on things physical than we were



wont to do in times of peace. Further, these boys who were finally selected from some twenty-six million citizens were encouraged to participate in sports and to place a high value on physical perfection. When the war was won, we took stock and found that half of our boys were physically defective and we set about devising means for correcting this condition. In those days some suggested that it was the duty of the state to conserve the physical manhood of the nation by means of universal military training while others said, "No, the schools and colleges will solve this problem by administering comprehensive programs of physical education."

Whatever causes may in the last analysis be held responsible for this unparalleled development of athletics, we may agree that at any rate we are giving more time and thought to physical matters than we did in pre-war days. This raises the question as to whether we are overstressing the physical. In some schools and colleges, undoubtedly we have allowed our enthusiasm to run away with us, but since it has been found that not more than twelve per cent of the school children of the nation are receiving adequate physical education, I believe that considering the nation as a whole we need give thought to constructive rather than restrictive measures.

The second question that very naturally presents itself for consideration is whether we are setting up the right kind of programs in physical education to secure the best results. All, I am sure, will agree that this must be considered in terms of the greatest good to the greatest number. Some school administrators have gone about settling this question of how all of the students with whom they are concerned may be given the benefits of physical training by the simple method of requiring all to enroll in the physical education classes and by providing proper instruction and equipment. This after all is the sensible way of guaranteeing that all of the students in the school will receive the benefits of the training.

It should be suggested, however, that inter-institutional competitive athletics be developed in the schools and colleges before comprehensive programs of physical education were devised and instituted. Some one has said that competition is the life of trade. Perhaps it is the competitive feature that constitutes the chief reason for the remarkable growth of our highly organized athletics. Possibly we could create more interest in some of our academic courses

by introducing the competitive idea. Certain it is that competition in athletics should not be limited to the playing activities of the teams on the field. Next fall the universities in the Western Conference are to be rated at the conclusion of the football season on the basis of the sportsmanship of crowds, teams, and coaches. The point that I wanted to call attention to, however, is that inter-institutional athletics developed first and then in most instances we set about broadening the scope of athletics and the other activities were likewise given encouragement. In many of our so-called athletic institutions, that is in colleges that are known far and near for the success which they have attained in intercollegiate athletics, very successful and satisfactory programs of physical education are now operative and, what is more, the machinery which created these various departments was set in motion by the athletic associations. In these institutions attention is given the subnormal students by the remedial departments, nearly all of the students are enrolled in intramural athletic groups and the intercollegiate teams serve as an incentive and stimulus to the others. This refutes the argument so often advanced that the way to develop mass athletics is to abolish or curtail inter-institutional athletics. Perhaps if we were starting at the beginning we would go about this thing differently than we did, but now we have in the most of our schools athletic organizations full formed and experience teaches us that these organizations may be expanded so that the objectives of the physical education department may be realized.

Three reasons may be advanced to explain why as much has not been accomplished by the physical education departments as we might wish. First, physical education is a comparatively new phase of education and consequently the men who have been chiefly responsible for its evolution have had to learn by trial and error. Much more should be accomplished in the second quarter of a century than in the first. Second, educators have in the main contented themselves with passing rules restricting athletics when a constructive attitude toward physical education might have accomplished more good. Third, there has not been any universal agreement as to the objective of physical education or of the purpose of competitive athletics. This is to be expected since our ideas of the meaning of education and the function of the school have undergone radical changes in the last generation. The time was when we were told that the school existed for the purpose of giving information to the students; then it was held that

the main objective of school training was that of providing cultural training to those who attended the schools; later, intellectualism was considered the desideratum of education and the sole purpose of the school was believed to be that of developing scholars; and then still later many believed that the function of the school was to train boys and girls to make a living. Today it is being suggested that the purpose of the school is to train for life and that the educator's task is that of improving human nature. If we accept that conception of education may we not then agree that the purpose of athletics is twofold: First, that of ministering to the physical needs of the students; and, second, that of building character by improving the natural instincts and capacities of the students. If these conceptions of purpose of athletics be accepted, then the competitive athletic program may be judged solely as to whether or not it is so administered as to aid in the proper physical development of all students and whether it is making use of the play activities in developing those traits of character, which are necessary for successful citizenship. The student who can sincerely voice the lines I quote in closing has caught a glimpse of the high ideals we wish to inculcate.

Dear Lord, in the battle that goes on through life,  
I ask but a field that is fair,  
A chance that is equal with all in the strife,  
The courage to strive and to dare.  
And if I should win, let it be by the code  
With my faith and my honor held high,  
And if I should lose, let me stand by  
The road and cheer as the winners go by.

So grant me to conquer, if conquer I can,  
By proving my worth in the fray,  
But teach me to lose like a regular man  
And not like a craven, I pray.  
Let me take off my hat to the  
Warriors who strode to victory, splendid and high,  
Yea, teach me to stand by the side of the road,  
And cheer as the winners go by.

—Berton Braley.

MR. C. W. WHITTEN, STATE MANAGER OF INTERSCHOLASTIC ATHLETICS IN ILLINOIS, read his paper, *Interscholastic Athletics and Their Management*.

## INTERSCHOLASTIC ATHLETICS AND THEIR MANAGEMENT

STATE MANAGER, ILLINOIS HIGH-SCHOOL ATHLETIC ASSOCIATION,  
C. W. WHITTEN

The interscholastic aspects of high-school athletics so dominate the present situation or, at least, so completely absorb the public interest, that any adequate discussion of the present status and outlook of athletic activities must, of necessity, deal very largely with the interscholastic phases of the subject. It will be understood, then, that I am attacking the problems largely from the viewpoint of inter-school competition.

Again I wish I might make it clear that while I shall devote a considerable portion of this paper to a discussion of the dangers incident to athletics as at present conducted it must not be implied that I am therefore antagonistic to competitive athletics. I yield to no man in my faith in and my enthusiasm for the educational values potential in athletics. I have said and now repeat that if I had a son in high school and were required to choose for him between ninety minutes of properly supervised and directed athletics per day for two years or the same amount of time devoted to geometry or Latin as commonly taught I should unhesitatingly choose athletics.

Let us consider briefly some of the more outstanding educational values of interscholastic athletics. And first we shall deal with what appears most obvious to the great mass of observers and which to many constitutes the sole merit, namely, the physical values.

In my judgment the physical values of interscholastic athletics are of decidedly minor importance to the participants. I base my estimate on the general proposition that only those whose need for physical development and correction is negligible are eligible for the teams. On the other hand I have no evidence of any kind in support of the popular belief that the strenuous activities of interscholastic contests are in any way injurious. The so-called "athlete's heart,"



the traditional over-developed muscles and similar evils seem largely imaginary. Specific cases are hard to locate.

Mr. Geo. Huff, director of physical education and athletics at the University of Illinois, has made rather an exhaustive study of the fate of those Illinois athletes who faced the examining boards created by the draft law. He found that the percentage of athletes failing to pass the army examinations was only about one-tenth of the percentage of the country-wide levies similarly failing. This seems good evidence that these men were not injured by athletics. It is not, of course, evidence that they were benefited. It more likely means that to get on a team they had to pass a far more rigorous selective test than even that required for admission to the army.

Major John L. Griffith makes the point that a desire to emulate the physical achievements of athletic heroes stimulates great numbers of lesser athletes to participate in athletic activities. I believe this point is well taken. The competitive games probably serve a fine purpose in setting up ideals of achievement toward which many hundreds who never "make the team" may bend their energies.

Unquestionably one of the weakest points in American athletics is our disposition to indulge in them entirely by proxy. We have idolized and deified the "champion" to the point of absurdity. I once heard Commissioner J. J. Tigert tell of participating, while a student at Oxford, England, in many a competitive game with few or no spectators. Those who, in America, would ordinarily have been spectators were themselves engaged in athletic activities. In America we are still too intent upon the applauding thousands and the bulging coffers to get the greatest physical benefits or, for that matter, the greatest social and moral values from our competitive athletics.

Hugh Fullerton has pointed out that whereas America regularly produces some of the greatest athletes in the world yet in proportion to our population we have fewer of them than many countries. The full utilization of the values of athletics will necessitate a much wider participation in them than now prevails.

There is another aspect of the physical values of athletics which ought to submit to a scientific method of inquiry, namely: To what extent do the training rules imposed upon athletes serve to develop fixed life habits? Do the dietary practices demanded by coaches, the avoidance of narcotics and stimulants, the securing of adequate



sleep and proper exercise fix habits that persist? As stated, this is something about which we ought not to have to guess. But I know of no study that has been undertaken to determine these matters.

Turning to the intellectual values potential in athletics, there can be no doubt that athletics might under proper conditions afford excellent opportunity for the development of mental alertness, keenness of discernment, promptness of decision, and general intellectual initiative. But, as practiced, the chief aim of coaching seems to be to reduce all of these factors to an irreducible minimum. Former president Meikeljohn of Amherst College has pointed out that only in a very limited sense can intercollegiate games be called games, "between colleges," or between the college students, or even between the teams participating. They are primarily games between coaches. The losing team not infrequently loses because of some departure from instructions risked by a too venturesome or independent team or captain. To be sure the ability to follow instructions in detail is an accomplishment of no mean value and due credit should be given to those teams and individuals that give some evidence of having achieved some degree of proficiency in it. Let us at least evaluate it as highly as we can for there is little else of intellectual value now emerging from intercholastic athletics of either high-school or college grade.

But from my viewpoint the chief educational values of competitive athletics are social and moral. And so impressed am I with the large social and moral values potential in athletics that I am sure I could easily devote my whole allotted time to a discussion of them. But I must content myself with a mere mention of them.

There are to begin with all of those virtues of self control, courage, team work, and co-operation, the submergence of the self in the interest of the group, a sort of unselfish loyalty and devotion to a social unit, virtues of which all society today stands so much in need. Athletic games afford an opportunity for the practice and development of these virtues that is probably not offered by any other high-school activity.

Then there are the further virtues of courtesy to opponents, the attitude and practice of fair play, the cultivation of the amenities that govern the conduct of gentlemen, in short all of those virtues which we popularly sum up in the term good sportsman-

ship which may be defined as the practice of the golden rule in the competitive activities of life.

With all of these values inherent in athletics, is it strange that one might choose them as superior for educational purposes to some of the other high-school subjects?

And I must point out some administrative values in organized athletics. In the first place they use up great stretches of the "leisure" time that constitutes such a menace to many boys who are immeasurably better off in the "gym" or on the athletic field than they would be in the unwholesome resorts that make so strong a bid for their patronage. And, secondly, athletic contests afford an excellent opportunity for a "blowing off of the steam" whose escape seems more or less impeded by the more conventional high-school activities.

Now, I believe it is perfectly legitimate to utilize athletic contests as a sort of avenue of expression of this exuberance on the part of high-school pupils. In so far as this restlessness is really due to youthful exuberance, the "pep" meetings, the organized rooting, and the various concomitants of athletic contests are a perfect avenue of expression for it, and under proper direction these may become adequate substitutes for hazing, class-cutting conspiracies, and "roughneck" activities, all of which are demoralizing, and destructive to educational efforts.

But when we permit our interscholastic contests to become the avenue of escape for all the neurotic, jazz hysteria of the entire community,—of the sensational newspapers, that usually have no ideals above advertising and income, of commercial clubs and "boosters" clubs whose highest conceptions of ethics are all comprehended in the ambition to "put the town on the map," of that class of respectable materialists who loudly proclaim that "nothing succeeds like success," of the town sports and gamblers, of the hangers-on of pool rooms and smoke shops, why, my friends, we overload our safety-valve and our educational engine instead of blowing off blows up with tremendous mortality to educational ideals and outcomes.

And that is exactly what happens when the clamorous, anti-educational, sporting elements of the community undertake to direct or to exert any appreciable influence upon the high-school athletics.

And it is in these anti-educational aims and practices that the dangers of athletics originate.

In general the processes and outcomes of high-school activities are rather too subtle and intangible to engage the attention of the average lay mind. The man on the street seldom offers suggestions as to either the matter or method of Latin, or geometry, or even of the so-called vocational subjects. It is seldom, even, that economic or sociological truth arouses more than a passing protest, particularly if administered with the proper sugar coating of tribute to the constitution or to the flag.

But the methods and outcomes of athletic contests are so conspicuously tangible that they constitute a very vulnerable point of attack for those material minded folk who find in athletics a promising outlet for the expression of their individual and community egos. Here is a field in which the "sports editor" vies with the "sport" for supremacy as an educational authority. The habitué of the smoke shop and the pool room affects to instruct the high-school principal and the coach in the accepted ethics or, rather, absence of ethics, of competitive athletics.

If the gambler can but have his say as to the methods of coaching or perhaps even in the choice of a coach, he will manifest his loyalty to the school and the community by betting on the games. The alumnus out of sheer love for alma mater, coupled with the laudable desire to win a little personal prestige, demands a hearing. The bewildered Rotarian cannot quite see what there is to "boost" unless the school men themselves toss their educational ideals into the discard and go in for advertising the community. And even the ladies of the bridge club think it is horrid that our team shouldn't win the championship.

Of course the situation is simplified somewhat by the identity of aim of all these agencies in spite of the diverse motives animating them. It is, in short, a winning team. Every educational aim whether it be physical, intellectual, social, or moral must be sacrificed to this end. No fantastic, nonsensical, visionary ideals of good sportsmanship will be permitted to get in the way of the attainment of this end.

Now I do not underestimate the desirability of winning a fair proportion of competitive games. I believe the *habit* of losing

is most demoralizing and very destructive of those qualities of mind which make for steadfast endeavor and genuine accomplishment. I want my school to win its reasonable share. When the conditions are favorable, once in a while, I want it to win a championship. But when the passion for winning becomes an obsession, a fetish before which educators must kneel and bump their foreheads on the ground, a juggernaut whose relentless wheels press the very life out of all our educational aims and ideals, I believe it is time to pause and take stock.

To be sure, the commercial aspects of athletics are all wrapped up with this demand for a winning team. As long as high-school athletics are financed by the gate receipts, there is a constant tendency on the part of school men to covet a winning team if only to replenish the athletic treasury. Personally I should be glad to see the time come when the expenses for athletics are paid from the same budget as are all other legitimate school expenses. I believe such a practice would eliminate from the athletic situation one of the most powerful influences for evil.

One of the most deplorable outcomes of this materialistic attitude toward athletics is the popular delusion that athletes must be "hard boiled." This is a delusion to which high-school boys are particularly susceptible. The average high-school boy is still subject to the imitative instinct. Many of the practices affected by the youth of this period are taken on through a desire to emulate some hero. These emulations may be good or evil. When the school athletics yield to the influence of that faction whose aims are materialistic and commercial the chances are that the ideals of culture and refinement receive short shrift. It is essential to athletic success that those social refinements we profess to cherish must be discarded? Are the profanity and vulgarity of the moral pervert the essential collateral evidence of athletic prowess? Is the obscenity of the brothel a necessary adjunct of physical virility?

I would not for the world imply that such attitudes and practices are universal or that they would be tolerated for a minute by such men and women as are assembled here. I have visited athletic team practices that, while they may have lacked something of classic elegance of expression, yet as far as cleanness of language was concerned were on a par with other classes of the school. Why should they not be? Yet I can assure you out of my personal experiences



that these evils are far too common amongst high-school athletes. And the disheartening feature of the case is that in the face of these gross practices many coaches are wholly complacent and unconcerned. It is their function to teach the technique of winning games. Let their academic colleagues look after the effeminate virtues. Athletics demand red-blooded manhood.

Now it were far better that athletic fields be plowed up and planted to beans than that such conceptions gain a permanent foothold. And school men must awake to the necessity of combating these evils. No fancied security of tenure through a popularity won by catering to these destructive interests can justify a school man in condoning or tolerating practices which nullify all the other activities of the school. The very recognition of the unquestioned values of athletics stimulates me to combat as vigorously as I can all those sinister and pernicious influences and practices which tend to creep in so insidiously and which bid fair, if they cannot be eliminated or controlled, so to stigmatize competitive athletics in the minds of thoughtful people that we shall be forced to abandon interschool athletics entirely to the great detriment of our pupils and loss to our communities.

I am here today as a representative of the Illinois High-School Athletic Association. Our constitution announces that our object "shall be to protect the athletic interests of the high schools belonging to this Association and to promote pure athletic sport." In the prosecution of these aims our Association of 725 co-operating high schools can accomplish, and has accomplished, far more in eliminating the evils of competitive athletics than could possibly be accomplished without such co-operation. I am confident that we are building up a morale in Illinois that is going to exert a tremendous influence in establishing interscholastic games on a firm educational foundation.

But from the very nature of the problems the operation of our Association in a local situation must be more or less formal and mechanical. It is our function to apply and enforce rules that have been formally adopted by our 725 schools in a representative assembly. The backing of this great association constitutes a powerful lever in the hands of any principal in conflict with the anti-educational forces of his community.



But in the main it must of necessity devolve upon the principal and his assistants to mold the sentiment of his community in support of the educational aims of athletics. Only by the intimate personal presentation and appeal can the general public be educated to the support we covet. And there are certain self-seeking interests that will remain permanently in an attitude of antagonism and revolt. We should strive to reconcile these interests by education but never by compromise.

For the last two years our Association has attempted to render assistance in this educational work by sending the State Manager to such communities as will give him an opportunity to speak. He attempts as well as he may to express the aims and ideals of the Association. It is believed that this sort of co-operation with the local school men may render more effective service in promoting our ideals.

So, with a clear comprehension of both the values and dangers of competitive athletics, through the ceaseless vigilance and endeavor of educators, through the co-operation of all of the constructive forces of society, through the work of state associations both by means of rules and through educational propaganda, through conciliation and concession when possible without compromising our ethical principles and through a straight out fight when there seems no other recourse, we are striving in Illinois to eliminate the conspicuous evils and to preserve to our high-school pupils the equally conspicuous values of our interscholastic athletics.

DR. L. W. SMITH, PRINCIPAL OF JOLIET TOWNSHIP HIGH SCHOOL, JOLIET, ILLINOIS, AND SECRETARY OF THE NATIONAL FEDERATION OF STATE HIGH-SCHOOL ATHLETIC ASSOCIATIONS, spoke without notes on the necessity of nation-wide standardization of interscholastic athletics.

## SIXTH SESSION

The sixth session of the association was called to order by President C. P. Briggs at 9:18 a. m. Thursday, February 28, 1924. This session was a joint conference of the National Association of Deans of Women and the National Association of Secondary-School Principals held in the Ball Room of Hotel La Salle. President Briggs called upon PRINCIPAL J. E. ARMSTRONG, ENGLEWOOD HIGH SCHOOL, CHICAGO, to open the discussion, *The Needs of the High-School Girl*, Mr. Armstrong read his paper, *As the Principal Sees Them*.

THE NEEDS OF THE HIGH-SCHOOL GIRL  
AS THE PRINCIPAL SEES THEM

PRINCIPAL J. E. ARMSTRONG, ENGLEWOOD HIGH SCHOOL, CHICAGO,  
ILLINOIS

The position of dean of girls added to our high schools a few years ago is being recognized wherever tried under proper conditions as a most valuable administrative function. In Chicago the position was inaugurated thirteen years ago by former Superintendent Ella Flagg Young partly because she thought the girls were not receiving a fair share of attention and partly to counteract the sorority movement. While these two objects have been accomplished, we recognize that there is a much greater object attained than was then in mind.

In order to ascertain the attitude of a sufficiently large group of high-school principals to form a group opinion a questionnaire was sent to sixty principals of high schools in the North Central territory and their reaction tabulated. From the replies received it is found that 80 per cent of the schools represented have deans of girls; 89 per cent of these teach one or more classes and in most cases two or three in the largest schools; 39 per cent direct all girls' organizations; 34 per cent have supervision of class organizations; 66 per cent maintain a system of senior sponsors that have charge of first year groups. The amount of time devoted to advising girls on personal affairs varies from 10 per cent to 75 per cent with an average of 40 per cent; 33 per cent have funds for conducting social functions supplied by parent teachers' clubs, by woman's clubs, or by the organizations concerned in the school; 60 per cent of them visit the homes in an

official way while but two maintain a visiting teacher or social service teacher as an assistant to the dean. This teacher has nothing to do with the truant officer's work. Fifty-nine per cent have a scholarship fund which is either loaned or made a gift and in some cases both, and in 30 per cent of these schools the dean is the chief administrator of this fund which is raised usually by the pupils, teachers, parents, or other citizens and in one case by a memorial bequest; in most cases, however, by the efforts of the pupils themselves. Seventy per cent of the deans have charge of the discipline of girls for offenses involving improper clothing, breach of etiquette, moral obliquity, and frivolous conduct toward boys. All teach citizenship, proper relation to parents, to teachers, to school, and to community. Two-thirds of them teach girls something of their duty to their church, and all teach girls to care for their health.

In two schools no one is named as dean but the functions of that official are distributed among a number of women teachers who have charge of from one hundred to four hundred girls each. These teachers have other functions not assigned to deans, such as care of study halls, etc. This seems to the writer to miss the unifying function of the dean and the possibility of building up school spirit, which is more difficult to attain with girls.

The last question asked of the principals was their estimate of the office of dean. Seventy-five per cent of them answered this question and every one spoke of it in the most enthusiastic terms. The replies are too lengthy to quote here, but may be summarized as follows:

"Cannot be over-estimated."

"A necessary official."

"Most essential."

"Of very great importance."

"Essential to adjust the girl to her environment and to life."

"Absolutely necessary."

"Very valuable if not too much attention is paid to emotional life."

We may well ask why such warm praise by so large a group of those who have introduced this department. In answer to this I would like to call attention first to the fact that our high schools, especially in the large cities, are obliged to care for a larger enrollment year by year. It is scarcely a generation ago that our largest high

schools enrolled less than a thousand pupils and many less than five hundred. Today we have from five to ten times those numbers. Formerly a principal could know by name the most of his pupils, and the teachers were the personal advisers of their small groups of pupils. Today a teacher in our large high schools may teach as many as one hundred fifty to three hundred pupils. In all this herding together of larger numbers, girls suffer more than boys because they are less independent and more sensitive. Boys look out for their own rights or even their supposed rights while girls will submit as a rule rather than fight. Girls follow directions better than boys and suffer rather than make known their grievances, especially in a public way. The dean becomes the confidential adviser and personal friend of the girls if she is equal to her task, while the average woman teacher by the very nature of her work as a class room teacher unfits herself for the most intimate relation to the girls. She must train herself to secure prompt obedience. She must curb all deviations from the standard type of conduct. She must dominate to a certain extent the personality of her pupils and just so far as she develops herself in this direction she becomes the cold, drillmaster described as "the schoolmarm." If she shows any leniency to one she is accused of being unfair to others. The dean must observe the mother spirit of love for the wayward.

When schools were small a generation ago, the school day closed in the early afternoon. There were several hours of daylight left for extra curriculum activities. They did not have to be considered at all as a part of the school work. A prominent preacher complained of the writer that "while he did not begin his school with prayer, he closed it with a dance." These were considered by many people at that time as two offenses against the then called "modern education." Today the school that does not conduct social functions and provide proper amusement finds its student body at the public dance hall and even worse places of amusement.

With the growth of the size of the school it soon became apparent that some teachers were better adapted than others to teach certain subjects, and that some were more skillful in conducting pupil activities. Every teacher now is a specialist and few are capable of supervising all the activities that his division of pupils demands. This work must be in the hands of a specialist if it is to succeed. May

the time come when the schools of education will offer courses in dean-ship as they now do in football coaching.

The modern high school is no longer a little monarchy ruled by a czar or an oligarchy ruled by a faculty of lesser czars, but a democracy in which all its citizens have a voice. Social functions are as essential to this little nation as to the nation at large. Some of these citizens come from homes where the standard of living is far below the average of the community. Some are from homes where permanent discord reigns, some are from dens of vice and moral degradation. All these need to be treated with sympathy and due consideration for their home environment. No one better than a sympathetic dean, who does not have to hold up the same measuring rod of conduct to all, can break through the shell of reserve of a timid or over-sensitive or vicious girl. The business of living together and having the proper regard for the rights of others is as great a problem for the schools with regard to the children of the rich as to those of the poor. In fact the office and social rooms of the dean are the laboratory in which the secret of living well and happily is being taught. Can a high school afford to be without this department?

The dean of girls might well be called the dean of boys, too, for no social functions of the school can be conducted without considering both sexes. The word social is often narrowed down to mean dances and tea parties. These are, of course, included but they are but a drop in the bucket. Among the duties in addition to the personal service above mentioned, might be enumerated the following:

Girls' Reserves.

Red Cross.

Christmas Baskets.

Special Dancing Classes.

Luncheons to Special Groups.

Small Social Group Parties.

Junior Prom.

Senior Reception.

Class Day.

Alumni Reception.

Parent-Teacher Reception.

Faculty Receptions.



One of the most humanizing pieces of work accomplished by the deans is the system of senior sponsors by which a senior girl or boy takes charge of a little group of six to ten first year pupils. The time was when the older boys of the school played all kinds of pranks on the beginners, making life as miserable as possible for them. They were directed to the basement or the attic for rooms that were near by, and told wrong names for teachers, and made to do ridiculous stunts for the amusement of the sophisticated upper class boys in imitation of college hazers. Now a small group of first year pupils is met by their sponsor once every two weeks for a game or a story, or for help on their lessons. The boys play checkers with members of their group or go out and play a game of hand ball or make a tour of the shops and laboratories to show them the wonderful school they are in.

Only two schools have added a social service teacher to the dean's department. In order to give some idea of the kind of work this assistant performs, the following tabulation of cases handled the last semester is given :

Cases reported to Associated Charities.....	15
Children requiring a home placed.....	5
Homes investigated for suitable place for same.....	15
Adjusted programs after home visit.....	22
Home conditions investigated.....	33
Employment for part time found for pupils.....	41
Visits made on account of failures in scholarship.....	40
Clothing supplied .....	10
Thefts investigated .....	5
Problem cases investigated for teachers.....	41
Cases sent to private physician.....	3
To clinics .....	11
Reported to parents for deafness.....	2
For goiter .....	20
For bad teeth.....	5
To housing bureau.....	2
Psychopathic cases reported.....	3
Cases referred to juvenile protective.....	6
Delinquencies investigated .....	40
Loan scholarships placed.....	15
Cases referred to boy and girl reserves.....	9

Graduates of two-year course returned after home visit,  
to take four year course..... 22

This is by no means all the cases handled by the visiting teacher but simply those pertaining to the dean's department.

Another undertaking which has been introduced into our schools largely on account of the work of the dean is the maintenance of a scholarship fund. More than half of the schools investigated report a scholarship fund. In some cases this fund is used to send pupils to college and in others to assist pupils who would be unable to complete their high-school course without such assistance. In the opinion of the writer and several of the contributors it would be better to confine the assistance to high-school courses since a large part of such funds is raised by the efforts of high-school pupils and a much larger number of pupils would be helped compared with the few that could go to college. The appeal also is much more direct to help those of their own number who would like to continue in school rather than to help those who go from their group to a higher institution where few of the workers themselves can hope to go. The case is different when the funds are contributed by outsiders. The pupils of my school raised \$2,000 last year for this fund and it is the means of keeping many pupils in school. In the opinion of the writer it is better to loan this money without interest rather than to make it a gift. The loan fund and the assistance of the visiting teacher have greatly increased the efficiency of the dean in my school.

It is apparent from the statistics gathered for this paper that the work of the deans is not standardized even in the large schools. Great progress, however, is being made in this direction, and such assemblies of deans from all parts of the United States as we have at this meeting must result in great good for the help of our high-school girls. I believe there is no doubt in the minds of the principals of all our high schools that have been so fortunate as to secure the right kind of a teacher as dean of girls and who have surrounded her with the conditions necessary for her work, that the needs of our girls are being splendidly met, their personality developed, citizenship elevated, and character refined by the work of our deans of girls.

At this juncture President Briggs introduced Miss Agnes E. Wells, President of the National Association of Deans of Women, and Dean of Women, Indiana University. Miss Wells spoke briefly

of the aims and hopes of the National Association of Deans of Women.

MISS JEANNETTE McDONALD, DEAN OF GIRLS OF TECHNICAL HIGH SCHOOL, OMAHA, NEBRASKA, read her paper, *How These Needs Are Met by a Dean of Girls*.

## HOW THESE NEEDS ARE MET BY A DEAN OF GIRLS

DEAN OF GIRLS, JEANNETTE McDONALD, TECHNICAL HIGH SCHOOL,  
OMAHA, NEBRASKA

For every girl in the high schools of the United States ten years ago, there are three today; for every one twenty years ago, there are four today; and for every one thirty years ago there are ten today. This increase in high-school attendance is to be attributed mainly to two causes: the growing belief that a high-school education is a distinct business asset, and the compulsory education laws which in many states require school attendance of every child under sixteen. In Nebraska high-school enrollment has increased 2539% in thirty years.

In 1890 the high-school student body was a highly selected group, composed mostly of boys and girls from cultured homes—homes where books and pictures, good taste and good cheer made an adequate foundation upon which to build the academic work of the high school of a generation ago. I recall a class which I taught some fifteen years ago. There was scarcely a pupil in that class whose parents were not well-educated. I was teaching the sons and daughters of lawyers, doctors, ministers, teachers. In those days the shifting of responsibility for the conduct of the child from the school to the home was a logical procedure. His parents were quite as capable of dealing with the problem as were the school officials. The latter felt, and rightly, that their obligation was met when the parents were notified. This custom still persists in most high schools, though the returns today do not justify the expenditure of time, effort, and money.

Today the percentage of high-school students who come from adequately equipped homes is shockingly less than it was even ten years ago. The bulk of the increase in attendance, then, is to be accounted for in the great influx of young people from families

whose highest ambition for their children even ten years ago did not exceed the possible completion of the eighth grade. In seven years I have found among the parents I have had occasion to interview only one who is a graduate of a high school. For the most part these parents have had little of formal schooling. They are hard working, and honest, and ambitious for their children; but they are quite unable to furnish, or even to grasp the need of furnishing for the growing child, the proper environment. Neither have they the preparation for dealing with the adolescent. Their energy goes to the struggle for food, clothing, and shelter; and they are all too often unable to supply these necessities in sufficient quantity. They look to the school, and justly, I believe, to do whatever is necessary to make of their son or daughter a social asset. The opportunities for schooling which they have not had, and which they are struggling to give their children seem to them a panacea for all ills. The notice saying that their girl has not met the requirements of the school is a blow, against which they do not know how to defend themselves, other than by berating the girl and blaming the teacher. Haven't they done their part? Why doesn't the school do its part?

Some of us are still trying to run our high schools on the plan of thirty years ago. The personnel of the student group today bears no resemblance to that of the last generation. The needs of our group have changed, but we still strive in many places to meet those needs with antiquated machinery. Theoretically the responsibility for the social, moral, and religious life of the child should fall upon the parents. Practically this responsibility cannot be met in the homes until we grow in every community a set of parents capable of dealing with the very complicated problem of supplying the environment, the activities, and the high ideals necessary for the nurture of a well-rounded social being.

It is difficult for those of us who belong to the last generation to realize that the day when the high school's sole responsibility for scholarship is past. A new vision of the school's obligation to the community has broadened our field and increased our task, until nothing that affects the life of the girl or boy is extraneous to the interest of the school and its officials.

Most of the girls in our high schools today are between the ages of fourteen and eighteen. A few are under fourteen, more

perhaps are over eighteen; but the mass will be found to be within the given limits—the age of change and unrest. What are the needs of these girls?

Perhaps there is nothing so soul satisfying to the administrative officer as the well organized plan for the year's work—a teacher's schedule, a room schedule, a program card for every pupil, and everything in readiness to push the button on the opening morning. It does seem that it should all work smoothly. The first day, as we all know too well, closes with chaos in the vicinity of the main offices. Most complaints are easily adjusted. But here is Mary who weeps because she has been assigned to sewing, or cooking, or biology, or almost anything. It doesn't matter just what—Mary is fifteen. She had a vision of what her program might be; and lo! it seems to be something else. Mary's troubles are real to Mary at fifteen—more real, more serious, more poignant than they will ever be again. She needs to confer with someone not immersed in the general rush of routine duties; someone with time, patience, and understanding, to whom she may pour out the cause of her dissatisfaction. It is useless to tell her she must follow her program. She is fifteen and unhappy. The school exists to serve her in the interests of the community. It is vital that Mary shall approach her work happily. Nobody can estimate the value of Mary as an asset if she determines to make her life a success; nobody can estimate her possibilities for harm, if she remains discontented. The school must not fail. Here is a task for a dean of girls.

There are other unhappy Marys in every school; and of no two are the causes of their miseries, real or imaginary, identical. Sometimes it is a broken family—the father and mother have separated; or there is a step-parent. Sometimes there is financial depression in the home; the father out of work; the mother ill. The prolonged interview with Mary brings out the real cause of her distress. The vital task is to help her adjust her difficulties, to see them in their right relation, to recognize herself as a responsible member of society whose business it is to live in peace and comparative happiness with her family. Sometimes it is necessary to see the step-father or mother and to smooth the way for Mary's new resolution to find an opportunity to function. Such adjustments are the province of a dean of girls.



There is another Mary who, together with one or two special chums, thinks herself sophisticated. She and her companions have been exposed to much misinformation about sex. This forms the basis of vulgar, obscene notes, which pass current among the girls and boys who, because of ignorance, are attracted by such. From time to time, all too infrequently, these notes are intercepted. Here is a plague spot revealed. On whom shall devolve the task of eliminating the poison and putting in its place the beautiful truth about the beginnings of life? These impressionable fifteen-year-old Marys are eager for the truth. They want to know. It is useless to send for their parents. If, as parents, they were capable of doing their duty by Mary, she would have been inoculated against the disease of obscenity. Her mind would not have been soiled with vulgarity. Who then shall help patiently, understandingly, effectively? Who but the dean of girls?

In every high school is the girl who tries to conceal her real complexion from the world. She admires lips of carmine, such as blaze on the covers of cheap fiction magazines. She affects the plucked and penciled eyebrow; she likes her lashes separated with messy black pigment; and she especially admires the vivid orange-red cheek bones, surrounded with an undue amount of powder applied in hasty daubs, or slightly revealed through a solid mask of whitewash. Who shall deliberately, persistently, gently, convey to her the fact that our external appearance is not our own business, except in the privacy of our own rooms; that, when we go forth to mingle with our kind, good taste demands that we shall consider the standards of those with whom we would associate, and that we may not offend with impunity? Here again is work for a dean of girls.

Closely allied to the girl with the excessive make up, is the girl who wears inappropriate clothing. If long dresses are fashionable, hers are the longest; if tight skirts are worn, hers are the tightest; if short sleeves are in vogue, hers are the shortest; if earrings are dangling, hers are most conspicuous for their length, breadth, and brilliancy. One girl so arrayed seems like fifty. She is omnipresent. Her chosen field for conquest is the gathering place of the athletic teams. These heroes seem to be especially susceptible to this type of girl. She will walk through a group of boys, and by some art known only to her, touch with her elbow, or hand, or

foot every boy in the group with the result that some boy or boys will follow her down the corridor or the street as she, with apparent innocence, goes on her way. Who shall deal with the school "vamp"? Whose shall be the task of laboring to bring about a change, or deciding that the school is better without this particular center of insidious influence? The lines must be carefully drawn. Here is not the place for hasty decision. Evidence must be conclusive. The gathering of evidence requires time; the evaluation, judgment; and the decision, courage. Who in a school faculty will undertake the task except the dean of girls?

Katherine, ambitious, determined, trustful, with home conditions wholly inadequate to help her fulfill her ambition, wishes a high-school diploma. Her mother has not learned to read or write. The family finances are low. She needs clothing and school supplies. She doesn't wish to be an object of charity, but she does need money. Can we find a place for her to work after school? She can take care of children. Perhaps there will be an opening later; but in the meantime she must continue. A loan is arranged for. Katherine borrows on her note whatever she needs to meet immediate demands. Katherine's private financial affairs must not be known to her fellow students. Her business transactions must be carried on confidentially. Who shall manage this and all similar cases? Who so well as the dean of girls?

I have been citing individual cases—cases with which I have had to deal. Every girl who is not happily adjusted to her surroundings at home or at school becomes a problem. To ignore her or to deal with her inadequately is reckless. The routine and publicity of the main office is little suited to the intimate interview. Whether it be dissatisfaction with a program, failure in the home, excessive use of cosmetics, vulgarity, extreme dress, lack of material resources, or the petty discipline which results from friction in the class room, irregular attendance, and undue tardiness, every high school has its quota of such problems, and should have an official whose special function it is to study the affected pupils and lessen, at least, the possibilities of permanent harm.

I am devoting the greater part of my discussion to those intimate problems which must be dealt with sympathetically, firmly, and above all privately—those problems the solution of which requires so much attention and patience—those problems which are

most vital in the lives of the adolescent girls affected. But there is another and a larger group of girls of whom the dean must think.

In every high school, as in every other group, the normal, healthy girls predominate and the needs of these girls should be the chief concern of every dean of girls; for, from among these must come the women who are to be the leaders in the community life of the next generation. These girls need a vision of what their lives should be. They must make their ideals effective through activities; they must develop character through accepting responsibility; they must be practiced in co-operation; they must, in fact, be prepared for a more adequate motherhood than were the girls of the past generations. Wherever one thousand, two thousand, or more young people are gathered together there is unlimited opportunity for girls to get the vision of a larger social service, through direction of their interests.

It is a physical impossibility for a dean to come in close personal touch with every normal girl in a large high school; but it is essential that a line of influence be established between the dean and each girl. The latter must come to feel that influence and to know that the way from her to the dean is open and inviting.

In no way can a dean so directly reach all normal girls as through an organization with membership dependent only on enrolment. A girls' presence in the school makes her perforce a member of the organized group. Girls desire popularity and leadership, and in an organization they readily see an opportunity to have their efficiency recognized.

In planning an organization including all girls, care must be taken to arrange for a widespread distribution of responsibilities. It is most desirable to have as many sets of officers and committees as there are classes in the school. Girls will approve a plan which calls for six or eight presidents, as many vice-presidents and secretaries, with the same number of sets of committees. Each section may work separately at times; at other times, in conjunction with other sections. The executive committee should be composed of officers of all sections. Each section may have charge of a general assembly at least twice a year. Thus the girls will have experience in planning and carrying through a program, with all that such an exercise entails of selection, preparation, and direction. Every committee of every section should

have a member in each of the smaller units of the school, so that information concerning any project undertaken by a committee may reach all girls directly.

Such an organization as this would not and should not overlap in any way a self-government plan which may be functioning. This organization should devote itself wholly to questions which especially pertain to girls—questions which the girls feel should not be discussed in mixed assemblies.

In a high school attended by both boys and girls we know how rarely a girl is elected president of any group if there is a boy in line. In a high school which graduated its first class in 1876, the election of a girl to the presidency of the senior class for the first time was considered of sufficient importance to be noted on the front page of a leading paper. In this particular school the girls have probably predominated in every class. Women need to develop confidence in each other. Why not begin the development with the high school girl?

The unostentatious directing of such an organization as I have so briefly sketched will consume both time and thought but will yield large returns. Through it the dean may touch the life of every girl. Through it she may awaken in the girl a desire for social service, and give her a means of training the forces within her, of recognizing her human relationships, and of making the best use of her social and material environment. Arranging programs, planning entertainments, establishing standards of conduct and scholarships, writing notes of sympathy, finding ways of being helpful, developing a sense of at-oneness with all the girls of the school, of the neighborhood, of the world—these are specific lines along which a group of organized girls may move.

Every high school in which girls are enrolled must eventually have the services of a woman specialist, or of several women specialists, whose duty it shall be to create an atmosphere and develop an influence which shall pervade the life of every girl and make it possible for her to experience the joy of becoming a well-rounded woman whose privilege it is to serve. All of this has become the province of the high school since our student body is no longer a selected group.



MRS. W. S. HEFFERAN OF THE PARENT-TEACHERS' ASSOCIATION OF CHICAGO addressed the meeting without manuscript on *How They Are Being Met by the Parent*.

## HOW THEY ARE BEING MET BY THE PARENT

MRS. W. S. HEFFERAN, PARENT-TEACHERS' ASSOCIATION, CHICAGO,  
ILLINOIS

The discussion on this occasion covers the most critical period in the life of the individual—adolescence—a period which is the acid test for both home and school as far as training is concerned. Because of the inadequacy of most homes the training offered by the high school assumes immense importance. More and more it is assuming responsibility for the care of the health of youth, its scholarship, and its social development through service. Through its extra curriculum activities, its tests for aptitudes and finally, in many instances, the high school assists youth to select its life work.

We parents are wont to put our children in one end of the educational oven and expect to take them out of the other side done; if they are under-done or over-done, we blame the teacher or the methods or the school, but if they are just well done, we say its "inherited genius."

Adolescence is a new birth, for then the higher and more human qualities are born. There is a physical, mental, and spiritual change of which parents become aware but because of lack of intelligence and training are unequipped to meet. Modern life is hard and increasingly so upon our youth. The home and the church and very often the school fail to understand its nature, its needs, and beyond all else its perils. Now youth demands a greater knowledge of mind and body to protect it against temptation and to assist it in the choice of a vocation and nothing helps more than long intimate talks with the elders on life's problems: the making and spending of money, on men and marriage, politics and civic affairs. It flatters them and makes them want to do and be and act their very best.

The idea of service can now be best developed and the opportunity for service must be given in the home through participation in the work and welfare of the household. Unfortunately, home study and music absorb most of the leisure hours of high-school girls, and



desirous of seeing them progress they are shielded from active participation in household cares and responsibilities which would be immensely developing. I shall rejoice on the arrival of a day when household economics is no longer an elective but a required subject, given a dignity and a recognition—this recognition: that the first requisite of any human life is the need of being fed and clothed and even bathed, in order that efficiency may be secured for the higher things of life, for some time as a mother, a daughter, a wife, or sister, the health and happiness of a household are in woman's hands.

Until one hundred years ago there was little machinery arranged for girlhood's education. Her important training lay with the family groups and she was educated through participation in the work and welfare of the household. It has been said that then girls were workers in every kind of task from lighthouse tending to scalping marauding Indians.

Ninety-five per cent of all teachers are women and ninety-nine per cent of the training of the young is in the hands of women in the home and school. Every woman, as parent, precedes the teacher as the child's earliest and most important teacher. Again 27,000,000 women were brought into citizenship by the Nineteenth Amendment and every woman, as citizen, becomes responsible for better conditions in home, school, and society. Therefore the girl's education today must equip her for a threefold function, either or all of which may be hers—parent, teacher, citizen. In this preparation the schools must assume a large share of the responsibility.

Vast changes in the education of girls have taken place since a Massachusetts town discussed whether females, being a tender and interesting part of the population, should have any rights to be pupils in the public town school. Where there happened to be extra benches they decided to admit them for two hours a day. By the state, county or city, education is now possible to girls and boys alike from kindergarten to the professional school.

The most important additions to the opportunities offered by the high schools are the extra class room activities which have been vastly increased in the last decade and which have been greatly improved since the advent of the dean of girls. These activities are quite sufficient to develop the social nature of the pupil and indeed all the time the high-school girl can afford to give or should give to

social life. Music can be supplemented in the home, but the auto and movies, which together take up much of the time of the adults, leave few opportunities for the home to do anything worth while for the social life of the child.

I know a school which in a large sense promotes the social and service life of the child in a very satisfactory way. Once a month there is the forum open to all high-school pupils. The first half of the program was made up of debates, readings, music, etc., and the last half dancing. Part of the faculty and several parents attend each time, the meeting closes at 11 p. m. and children must go home. Then there are the four parties, of freshmen, sophomore, junior, senior, closing at eleven o'clock, and chaperoned by many parents and most of the teachers who participate in the dancing. Children must return home, that is, they must not attend another dance. Then there are classes in social dancing during winter semester. The school requests that social affairs during holidays be arranged after consultation with the parents so there will not be an excessive amount of entertaining. I should say that 95 per cent of the social life of the pupils centers in school. At Christmas and Thanksgiving time a well ordered plan of participation by the children in simple giving is carried out. Where the homes of children outside this school have touched socially on the lives of these children there has been a marked contrast.

I have come to realize that, with the tendency of young people to dominate the home and the inadequacy of parents generally that the educational institutions must plan simple but delightful social functions and call upon the parents for financial and moral support. The result will be better all round. Social activities sponsored by schools are far more democratic than those held in the home because they must include all of a class and there would be no chance for social distinction. Here and there a parent-teacher association has attempted to plan chaperoned dances with some degree of success, but when planned by deans and executed by both parents and teachers the result is more satisfactory.

Never have our young people been subjected to so severe temptation as in our own time. Increasing city life with its prematurities, the get-rich-quick spirit in the air, the desire on the part of the young to be all, act all, and do all befitting adult estate—all these lack the

regulations that healthy youth must have, and in an atmosphere of this kind they rush rather than grow into maturity.

To the deans, the universal mothers, we turn with hope that with woman's instinct they sense the needs. We ask that you men and women of the secondary schools put down the algebra or Latin occasionally and talk to the young people about the care of the body, the attitude toward the opposite sex, courtesy, kindness, the making and spending of money, and ideals. The reactions are far beyond anything we can immediately sense.

If we are to educate these young people, using the word in its broadest, fullest meaning, the more entirely we can fill their field of vision with the school and its allied activities, the greater hold we shall have upon them.

Education has hardly tapped the intellectual and spiritual energies of youth. Your young people have ambitions which are infinitely precious. To a large degree our ability to meet successfully the baffling social problems of our present civilization rests upon our utilization of these energies and ambitions. The future depends largely upon our young people. If they are given an opportunity to prepare themselves, not only will they play their part courageously, but they will bring a high degree of genius to the solution of the most intricate problems humanity has ever been called on to face.

MISS DORA WELLS, PRINCIPAL OF LUCY L. FLOWER TECHNICAL HIGH SCHOOL, CHICAGO, read her paper, *The Mal-adjusted Girl—How We Take Care of Her, and Fail to Take Care of Her.*

## THE MAL-ADJUSTED GIRL—HOW WE TAKE CARE OF HER AND FAIL TO TAKE CARE OF HER

PRINCIPAL DORA WELLS, LUCY L. FLOWER TECHNICAL HIGH SCHOOL, CHICAGO, ILLINOIS

The first step in the effort to bring a misfit girl into harmony with herself and her environment is to discover, if possible, the cause of her mal-adjustment. The next is to decide whether the environment, or the girl, or both the environment and the girl are to be modified. The third step is to speak with the concentrated essence of diplomacy, to act with the wisdom of the sages, to love with the love that never faileth, and to wait with eternal patience.

With tact on your side, plus wisdom, tireless affection, and patience, together with the blessed possibility of change inherent in every growing child, you may win. With poor inheritance, indifferent and ignorant fathers and mothers, bad habits and wrong ideals to combat, your chances of failure are many. If you fail, you will be acutely conscious of your failure. If you win, you will probably never know it. But the effort is part of the unending quest for life more abundant, toward which we are all striving and the struggle is worth while in itself, else why are we in this room today?

The most far-reaching and the most serious cause of mal-adjustment to school work that I have found among young girls is a broken or a disorganized home. Just as after a war in which many fathers of families are killed or disabled, we can for more than a generation trace results in mal-nutrition and defective growth, in the shortening of the period of school life and in the early assumption of the responsibilities of wage earning among children who have lost their natural provider and protector, so in families where the parents have been divorced, where one or the other has deserted, where one or the other is an invalid, the children suffer. There is irregularity and weakness in parental control; there are uncertainties and anxieties; frequently, bad examples of conduct are presented to the impressionable girl. She is left too much alone while father or mother is away at work. Responsibilities too heavy for young shoulders are laid upon her. Perhaps she has too much leisure time. No one is at home to become acquainted with her friends. No one knows where she goes when she leaves the house. Irregularity in school attendance follows. Sometimes the girl is so exhausted by her home duties that she cannot meet the demands of the school. Sometimes she is so discouraged by her burdens that she becomes wayward and seeks relief in questionable pleasure or even in real dissipation. The result is that she becomes incapable of sustained effort and resentful of the restraints of school life.

A second cause of mal-adjustment may be found in physical weaknesses and defects. The girl whose poor eyesight has been neglected through childhood becomes short-sighted mentally as well as physically. Her spelling is incorrect because she does not see all the letters in a word. Her reading is inaccurate because she does not clearly see all the words in a sentence. She is careless in



her sewing, and clumsy in her cooking. She miscalculates distances in the games played in the gymnasium. Because she has never received clear visual impressions, her concepts, her language, all her processes of thought and expression have become blurred and vague. Discouragement and discontent are the inevitable results of her condition and she tries to get out from the familiar world of school and enter some new activity in which she hopes to find the success and the happiness that have not been hers hitherto.

I might speak of the sensitiveness, the jealousy and the egotism of the girl whose hearing is defective, the lethargy that comes from anemia, and the volatility that comes from an under-nourished and undisciplined nervous system—all producing poor adjustment to the usual routine of school life.

Too rapid growth is a frequent cause of temporary mal-adjustment. At the time when rapidly enlarging muscles are aching for free and generous movement, we sentence them to needle-work and penmanship. At the time when nature cries out for fresh air and food and sleep, we offer irregular verbs and the binomial theorem. Nature says "Grow." We say, "Recite your lessons as well as your schoolmates do, or be dubbed an incompetent."

Once upon a time there was a boy who was unable to master any of the subjects given in the first year of his high school course. His record in the elementary school was good. His attitude and behavior were admirable. He studied manfully, and he was deeply chagrined at his failure to understand the work in which his classmates were succeeding.

His mother was interviewed. Were his eyes at fault? A test showed that the trouble was not in his eyes. Was he getting enough sleep, enough exercise, enough food of the right kind? Had he any bad physical habits? As far as could be ascertained, he was a model boy in a model home. The case seemed hopeless, until the mother remarked casually, "He has doubled his weight in the last six months." Doubled his weight in the last six months! And his teachers and his parents were expecting him to do more than this! The labors of Hercules sink into insignificance before the tasks that had been set for this boy. Fortunately good sense prevailed and the boy was permitted to grow in peace. He was not nagged, nor scolded, nor condemned, and before another six months



had passed he awoke. He began to see the meaning in his blundering experiments in the science laboratory. He began to solve problems that had hitherto been a blank puzzle. He expressed his feelings in these words, "I don't understand how it is. A little while ago, I couldn't see and now it is all plain and easy." Might not the same treatment prevail with a rapidly growing girl?

The mental processes of some children will always be slow. Compared with the type of youngster whose nerves respond to excitation with a hair-trigger jump, such children *seem* dull, and school people forget that mere slowness is not dullness or stupidity.

Sometimes a girl is mentally too old or too young to be interested in the particular pabulum of instruction upon which her classmates are thriving. Is it strange that the adolescent girl is sometimes a misfit? Is it to be wondered at that she is moody and fractious, a trial at home and a problem at school?

And the remedy? If I had known three months ago, instead of barely three weeks ago, that I was to write this paper, doubtless I should have added one more to the pile of questionnaires that load the desks of the teaching fraternity, and from the answers to my questions have acquired wisdom to present to you, but as a questionnaire was impossible, all I can tell you is the little I have learned from my own experience.

First of all, I want to discard two words,— the word subnormal and the word failure. I would discard the word subnormal because, I do not know what it means. For that matter, neither do you. Because the child who has slept with two little sisters in a closed room and then breakfasted upon pancakes and sausage, does not respond joyously to the stimulus of a nine o'clock arithmetic class, she is forsooth subnormal. Later in the day when there has been time for a little oxygen to work into her blood she does fairly well in English and geography, but she is subnormal, as far as the subject of mathematics is concerned. I do not like that word subnormal. It rings false in my ears.

I would discard the word failure, because it has nothing to do with a child or an adolescent. It is not an attribute, nor a concomitant, nor even a distant relative of childhood and adolescence. The mal-adjusted girl is a living, growing hope, to be nurtured and

cherished. With failure as a term of measurement, she has no concern. She should never hear the word.

For some years, in addition to the supervision of girls of the average high-school type, I have been interested in a prevocational department made up of girls sent from the sixth, seventh, and eighth grades of the elementary schools. All of these girls have passed their fourteenth birthday. All of them are, in the literal meaning of the word, retarded. And as I have tried to find the causes of their retardation, I have been shocked again and again at the waste of good human material which they represent. They suffer from neglected teeth, from defective vision, from adenoids, from diseased tonsils, from mal-nutrition, from heart weaknesses,—troubles which might have been reduced and perhaps cured, if proper treatment had been given in early childhood. Gone forever is the chance for untrammelled growth through fourteen or fifteen precious years. Happy is the girl, for whom, while the plastic days of adolescence are still hers, the handicaps can be removed and the avenues to future growth be unblocked.

All the resources of medical and surgical skill, all the trained wisdom of expert psychologists should be at the service of these girls. The obligation rests upon us all, parents, teachers, and boards of education. The community that does not assume the duty of preserving and restoring to every child, as far as may be, the possibilities of development with which nature originally endowed him is convicted of incapacity, of niggardliness, and of ruinous waste.

But the cost? To the argument that a community cannot afford to assume the responsibility of bringing to maximum efficiency every child within its boundaries, there is but one answer. The community cannot afford *not* to assume this obligation. It is cheaper to save than to waste. It is cheaper to restore human values than to suffer them to grow less. And further, when the time comes that the community as a whole will not content itself merely with conserving and restoring but will dare to safeguard the breeding of children as carefully as it now safeguards the breeding of cattle, the world will be a better and happier place.

The types of training found today in the so-called industrial centers in certain elementary schools of Chicago are helpful to many boys and girls who do not thrive on purely academic education.

Among more mature pupils the expedient of grouping together those who lack adjustment because of retardation and too rapid physical growth has been found helpful. In Chicago we call such groups prevocational. When they are with others of their own kind the girls in these groups are not embarrassed and mortified by the presence of smaller and young children. School employments that require a generous measure of physical activity are given them. The results are tangible and desirable. Hats and gowns come from the sewing rooms, designs for weaving and embroidery from the art classes, scarfs, bags and rugs from the weaving room, attractive and palatable food from the cooking room. High in ethical value stands participation in the preparation of the noon lunch for the rest of the school. In the room devoted to the study of skin and hair they learn good sense in beautifying. In their gymnastic work they learn the spirit of fair play and the value of team work. Above all they learn that the school is theirs and that its success depends upon them. With few exceptions they respond to the responsibilities laid upon them.

If a girl can see and enjoy the results of her own activity the road to self-confidence and self-respect is open. To the girl who has always been measured by an academic standard, to the girl accustomed to think of herself as a failure, life has a new meaning when she finds that she can produce something that her world calls good. She gains immensely in dignity when she learns that upon her rests the responsibility of a vital part of the work of the school. She ceases to worry about the difference between 74 per cent and 75 per cent when she realizes that a kindly heart and a generous spirit have value in school experiences. Success begets success until sometimes even her hated arithmetic becomes a tolerable and perhaps a desirable study.

The vocational courses in the high schools appeal strongly to girls in the prevocational classes. Many who would otherwise drop out of school to take the first job available, stay on to honorable graduation from eighth grade, enter the two-year vocational courses in high school and go out to positions demanding skill and poise. Usually they do not care for the four-year courses, but the ambition to become self-supporting is not discreditable, and we believe that once they possess genuinely marketable skill for which employers will pay money, their education will not cease when they leave the school room.

With these suggestions I must close. Is it not true as I said in the beginning that the essentials in dealing with the mal-adjusted girl are tact and wisdom and love and eternal patience?

Dr. Anne T. Bingham, Psychiatrist of Girls' Service League, New York City, read her paper on *How They Are Met by Social and Philanthropic Organizations*.

## HOW THEY ARE MET BY SOCIAL AND PHILANTHROPIC ORGANIZATIONS

DR. ANNE T. BINGHAM, PSYCHIATRIST, GIRLS' SERVICE LEAGUE,  
NEW YORK CITY.

In studying the life of an individual, the school period stands out as a very important one. It represents at the start, brand new adaptations which are difficult for many children, some of whom react by developing neurotic or personality traits which never cease to hamper them. As the work becomes more difficult, demands on physical strength, on brain and nervous balance are naturally greater and children having narrow margins of reserve in these fields, show signs of strain. It is well known that not only mental development, but also the emotional life is strongly influenced by school experiences of all sorts, and since during adolescence, which coincides with the high-school period, the emotional life is particularly active, it is of vital moment to society and to these problem youths that they be understood and properly treated. I have come here today to tell you of the beginning that we have made along this line in New York and of how it all came about.

In social work, as in medicine, prevention should be our ultimate aim, and we believe that it is becoming so. Therefore, a desirable reaction to experiences with physical, mental or social illness is a wish to prevent these abnormal conditions. For over ten years the organization which I represent, formerly known as the New York Probation and Protective Association, now the Girls' Service League of America, made intensive studies of so-called delinquent girls. As a result of such studies we convinced ourselves of the truth of certain definite things, an important one being that there is no criminal type. This means, of course, that we must reckon with the individual, with his peculiar personality, his very own reactions



to circumstances which his emotions and his degree of intelligence or mental soundness determine, and it means also that routine, impersonal treatment is unintelligent and wasteful. We believe that the same principle of individual study and treatment applies to any sort of problem, whether delinquent or not. Further, in our experiences with delinquents, we found repeatedly such undesirable characteristics as a grudge attitude, a feeling of inferiority, morbid repression, excessive sensitiveness, seclusiveness, inhibiting dissatisfaction. In many instances, habits of pernicious thinking and doing had become so fixed that it was hard to alter them. While this was especially true for those whose mental equipment was poor, it was by no means confined to such, and we felt that if anti-social tendencies and unhealthy mental attitudes could be detected and treated early in adolescence, social disaster might be prevented for some, nervous or mental breakdown averted for others. And so, when about three years ago our association organized to help girls, received an appeal from one of New York's largest high schools for assistance in understanding some of its problem girls, it responded by offering the time of its psychiatrist for two-half days a week because this work seemed a logical part of our preventive program.

I find that there may be confusion about this word "psychiatrist." To some it is synonymous with "psychologist;" to others, it implies one who is merely interested in the mentally sick, the insane, while many are inclined to apply in a vague way the term "psychoanalyst" to anyone interested in mental processes. By way of explanation, may I say that the psychiatrist, unlike the psychologist, has had general training in medicine, in addition to specializing in nervous and mental diseases, and is further interested in studying in great detail a person's adaptation to life, his personality makeup, his emotional reactions, his intellectual development. Physical and nervous states are also taken into consideration by the psychiatrist, who after accumulating all this material, seeks to evaluate it and then to see what needs to be done and what can be done, the idea being to prevent as far as possible nervous, mental, social disaster if they are threatened and to help the individual concerned to live efficiently and happily.

I am sure that none of you think for a moment that the only function of the school is to train children along academic lines. To



develop ability in mathematics or languages or science is not enough. We need in our communities citizens with good nervous balance, a proper regard for ethical values, whose viewpoints are not warped by unhealthy personality traits. In far too many instances, since homes and churches may be inactive in meeting these needs, it is to the schools that we look, and I believe that modern psychiatry can offer practical cooperation.

In March, 1921, we began in Washington Irving High School, New York City, what is, I believe, pioneer work in applying psychiatry to high-school problems. Let me emphasize the important fact that this school recognized its need for a greater understanding of difficult cases so that from the start, the principal, the two deans, and the teachers were most delightfully and intelligently cooperative. Without such a spirit, the work of a psychiatrist in the school would have little value, as so much depends on the execution of suggestions and on an intelligent use of material which the examination reveals.

Briefly outlined, the method that we use is as follows: a girl who is considered a problem may be referred for examination by any teacher or by any one else in the school having contact with the pupils. Among reasons given for asking for an examination are: (1) *scholarship*: which may be either poor, or inconsistent with rating obtained in entrance group psychological tests; (2) *behavior*: either unruly, as found in discipline cases, or peculiar. You all know that the majority of pupils in high schools at least adapt themselves after a little time to class room routine, but there are always some who is considered a problem may be referred for examination by painful self-consciousness, evidences of tension, of emotional instability, of excitability, of depression or apathy, or pre-occupation. It is with these exceptions that the psychiatrist is concerned, as they may be cases of definite mental or nervous sickness, or they may be hampered by a natural predisposition for such conditions and be passing through some trying experience where help is badly needed. Peculiar behavior is found also in those with difficult personality traits, already alluded to in speaking of delinquents. One sees in those children who complain of favoritism at home and unfair marks in school, and disloyalty of friends, the beginning of an antisocial grudge attitude, or an even more serious paranoid trend.

In addition to unsatisfactory scholarship and peculiar behavior, the pupil may be referred for examination because she appears (3) *physically unfit*. Of course, no medical treatment is given in the school, but when conditions demanding attention are found, the children are sent to different places where they can receive it. I am sure I do not need to dwell upon the influence which physical defect has upon scholarship and behavior, nor on the benefit which follows suitable treatment. Inattention, lack of interest, restlessness, lawlessness in school, frequent absence, truancy, undesirable companions, are frequently associated with eye strain and headache, and proper glasses, faithfully worn, may bring about surprising changes in school work and conduct. The child who is always having colds and tonsillitis naturally becomes discouraged over getting back in school work and may cease to try, a bad attitude to acquire. Certain conditions of the ductless glands result in restlessness, irritability and headaches, symptoms which are relieved when properly treated. Both teachers and doctors should get the habit of looking at these conduct phenomena as manifestations of something, the causes of which we are to seek. Important as are the physical reasons for referring a child for examination, even more important and certainly less often recognized, are obscure emotional states, dependent on great sensitiveness, feelings of inferiority, perhaps because of deformity or speech defect, or morbid fears, anxiety, depression, all of which have a great effect in the development of the personality, and which consequently need to be recognized and treated.

The next step after the name of a pupil has been presented for examination is to have someone, a dean, a grade adviser, or some teacher assigned to assist in this special work get together material which the psychiatrist needs to have; that is, a clear statement of the problem as the school sees it, the scholarship and behavior record, and an account of any contacts with the family, and the report of the psychologist, for, in addition to the group psychological tests, we have individual Terman tests given to all these children who are specially studied. Washington Irving High School is fortunate enough to have its own psychologist, paid for in part by a private individual, the balance supplied by proceeds from a school play. In other schools where we work, our organization gives the time of its psychologist for the individual Termans. The follow up work

which develops from a study of the case is carried on usually by the one who has gotten the material together and by a visitor who does some calling in homes. The service of the visitor is for the present supplied by our organization.

The method of the examination which we use is to meet the pupil informally, the introduction including some general statement as to the purpose of the examination, and the implication is often given that since the doctor's time in the school is limited, and, therefore, all students cannot be seen by her, it is a special advantage to those selected. In other words, we try to prevent any feeling that a special examination designates one as peculiar, and we think we succeed, for it is a rare exception if a girl fails to give good co-operation. An important part of the examination is a detailed account of the family and home situation, with the girl's reactions to her parents, her brothers and sisters, her school experiences. We want to know also where her interests lie, whether in books, music, sports, domestic arts, handiwork, or chiefly in "having a good time." We get an idea of her general physical condition, including previous illnesses, operations, accidents, tendency to headaches. We question her about her hygiene of living, such as habits of eating, tea and coffee drinking, sleeping. We get an idea regarding her nervous stability, from finding, for example, if she has had convulsions or St. Vitus dance; whether she is excitable, easily frightened, possessed of violent temper; whether she is a nail biter or a sleep walker; whether in time of stress she becomes nauseated or develops a headache. Following this inquiry a physical examination is given for the purpose of finding if there are conditions which need attention. Then comes inquiry into mental processes; we ask about the mood, whether phlegmatic, happy-go-lucky, depressed, elated. We seek to know how much a part imagination plays in the girl's life; how much she daydreams, and if she does, to what extent a phantasy life encroaches on reality. We try to get at causes of sensitiveness, of feelings of inferiority, or "being different," or of being discriminated against. We question regarding the presence of fears and compulsive ideas. We wish to gain an idea of the girl's instinctive needs, her affections, her sources of satisfaction. We want to know her ambitions, her plans for the future in order to see if they are impracticable. In this connection we take into consideration the findings of the psychologist, and the scholarship record, and

the presence or absence of talent which her class work has brought out. On the basis of positive things, which all this examination reveals, a plan is suggested for each pupil, and, of course, these plans are essentially individual. They may be concerned merely with a temporary change of program, or a radical change of course, or extra help with a difficult subject. The lack of understanding or of sympathy on the part of a member of the family may call for an interview in which one seeks to interpret the child to the parent, or vice versa. Additional recreation or a special type may be indicated, or companionship for a shy, lonely girl who broods over her unpopularity. Special consideration may be asked of teachers for girls who over-compensate for timidity and painful self-consciousness by quick rather than thoughtful answers or for those who can never bring themselves to take any voluntary part in class work. One wonders how teachers of large classes are able to individualize their pupils at all and it is not strange that these difficult adolescents are often not understood, that they need to be interpreted to their teachers, as well as to their families. There may occur in our plans suggestions for physical betterment which may be undertaken in the school, such as correctional exercises, or extra food for malnutrition children, or we may attempt to develop more intangible things, such as an ethical sense, a more responsible attitude, self-confidence based on achievement, or a better realization of personal assets. We know that much energy is lost through inhibitions and conflicts of an emotional nature as well as by the lack of harmony between ambition and capacity for achievement. Therefore, it is absolutely essential that the child's inner life be reached if we are to understand and plan wisely.

About a year after this work had been started in Washington Irving High School we were asked to give some time regularly to two high schools in Brooklyn, Erasmus Hall and Bay Ridge, and we have been able to examine in these two schools girls who present unusual difficulties. We have also seen by appointment at the offices of the organization girls sent from other high schools in Manhattan. When possible, we think it a mutual advantage to go to the schools, as the whole process then becomes simpler and more natural. Also, it is valuable to have opportunities for conferring on the spot with the teachers of these girls whose real problems are often quite different from those which appear in the class room.



Last year we held in two of the high schools where we have made examinations a series of case conferences which were attended by teachers especially interested in the pupils discussed, and also by representatives of different social and religious organizations working with adolescents. We had several objects in view in holding these conferences. We wanted to present cases in their entirety so that the teachers might look further than class room behavior in their understanding and treatment of problem children. Also, we wished to help teachers recognize early signs of nervous and mental illnesses, as well as to realize that certain personality traits which are actually or potentially serious, may be checked or modified if detected early. Other reasons for these conferences were to bring together for concrete application the resources of the school and the community and to get from diversified points of view expert help for our problem girl.

Since we began our school work three years ago, about two hundred girls have been examined. Unsatisfactory scholarship comes first among the reasons for referring, but the underlying causes for this condition are interestingly various. For example, among three girls seen in one day on this score, one was definitely dull and not mentally capable of carrying the course which she was attempting. The second was bright enough to do creditable work, but was a spoiled child who had never exerted herself to do anything hard and she had no stimulation at home to do her best. Her parents indulgently overlooked her failures, telling her that next time she would surely do better and not to worry, so she did not. Very satisfactory improvement which has persisted resulted from an appeal to her to brace up, followed by judicious encouragement in school and a more sensible parental attitude. The third girl who had a superior type of intelligence was undoubtedly kept from doing the brilliant work which might have been expected of her because of an emotional experience. She was an only child, fond of both parents, but particularly devoted to her father. No wonder she was upset when she found that her mother was suing for a divorce, which was granted. The conflict which all this induced was terrific for this sensitive adolescent, whose reason told her that she should not love her father as she had, whose emotions told her that she did. She could not concentrate on school work and planned to leave to take a position. Relief undoubtedly followed the telling of



her trouble; she was encouraged to remain in school and certain adjustments were made there. The child became much happier, more nervously stable and the quality of her work improved.

A sixteen-year-old girl was referred because she had attempted to cut her wrists, supposedly with suicidal intent. She was a neurotic child, with a pronounced inferiority feeling. This probably originated on a physical basis, as muscular weakness following diphtheria necessitated the wearing of braces when she was small. She felt that she could not run and play like other girls; that she was clumsy, and she dreaded ridicule to a morbid degree. She avoided competition where she would appear at a disadvantage, and when she entered high school, physical training was dreaded, because she feared physical injury and also failure and ridicule. She cut classes to such an extent that she knew her parents must soon hear of it, and she felt she could not face her father's displeasure. Perhaps even death was preferable, she thought. At any rate, she might become an object of interest and pity. The whole situation was talked over with her, including an analysis of the development of her fears, and the need stressed for gaining ascendancy over them. Long and valuable interviews were held with both of her parents who gratefully promised to cooperate. Her physical training teacher gladly gave her special attention until she gained enough confidence so that she voluntarily took the once-dreaded exercises. Since then, there have been no further complaints of her conduct in school and her work in all subjects has improved.

An examination was requested for an attractive fourteen-year-old girl because she seemed nervous and unhappy and reported having done automatic writing. She was an orphan living unhappily with paternal uncles, who compelled her to give up one pleasure after another. Her mother, whom she idealized, had died in a hospital for the insane. This child was naturally nervous and sensitive, and because life was so hard for her she found her phantasies a great resource, and came to depend on them more and more. Shortly before we saw her she had been feeling quite disturbed because told that she must leave school, almost her last pleasure, in order to do more work in her uncle's bakery, which she hated. When trying futilely to do French exercises she found herself writing automatically what she considered a reassuring message from her dead mother. Certainly her conflicts and yearnings were

reaching a pathological expression and we recognized the serious possibilities. We were not able to persuade her relatives to leave her in high school, but in order to insure for her encouragement and recreation we brought her to the attention of teachers in a continuation school, as well as to the Protestant Big Sisters. This girl regarded those who interested themselves in her in high school as very real friends and came back to see them sometimes. After a while she asked for an office position which was procured for her and which proved a happy placement. She now seems quite normal and adjusted.

Among the first girls seen in Washington Irving High School was one who was referred for what her teachers considered a speech defect but who was found by the psychiatrist to be a case of dementia praecox, with definite hallucinations. She was in the dress-making course and received passing marks in that, but she took little or no part in oral class work. She might easily have been sent to a hospital for the insane, but since she presented no dangerous symptoms, did not disturb classes, and was evidently getting something from school, we resolved to let her stay on, for we realized that her interest there was her strongest link with reality and that, consequently, it was to her advantage to have every effort made to foster such interest. Each term her new teachers were told about her so that they might understand her better and she has just graduated. We do not know what the next chapter in her life will be, but certainly it is greatly to the credit of a huge city school that such a child has been patiently and skillfully handled for such a period of time.

I should not stop without making a point that although in speaking on the topic assigned, my emphasis has been placed on high school *girls*, all that has been said applies equally to *boys*. In fact, an adviser of students in one school where I work often says that more problem boys than girls are sent to her and in dealing with them she has received valuable help from getting a psychiatric viewpoint.

The special nature of this help has been illustrated in the cases cited, but since they are described so briefly, the point may not have been made clear that it is that of an expert, that it cannot be given by people without medical and psychiatric training. The experience of the psychiatrist in dealing with the mentally sick makes it

possible for him to recognize early danger signs which are not obvious to the untrained observer, but which when found indicate pathological mental processes. These are discovered through studying the behavior of the child, learning the mood, getting the modes of reaction, listening to spontaneous talk and drawing the individual out so that she reveals her perplexities. Only after the psychiatrist has obtained this intimate knowledge of the individual is he in a position to plan constructive treatment.

In connection with these special examinations, certain clear cut needs have been emphasized, such as a greater variety of courses in high schools so that a pupil may be tried out in different lines of work in the same school rather than be sent from one to another or discharged, procedures which are certain to accentuate a sense of failure. Besides waste of time and injustice to children, there is incalculable expense involved in forcing them to continue in courses obviously unsuitable, as shown by repeated lack of success. These special classes are needed for two types of pupils, the dull, slow ones who can learn, given time enough, and those who are so dull that they cannot ever hope to complete regular academic work, but who can get a cultural background if given more time in school. Extra time of teachers to give individual help would be a boon to many pupils whose difficulties are specialized. We need greater facilities for making home and family adjustments, work which the right kind of visiting teacher can do so efficiently.

We cannot expect such conservative bodies as boards of education to provide for psychiatric work in schools until its practical value has been proven. Accordingly, demonstrations of such work for a time will probably need to be financed by foundations, private organizations or philanthropic individuals. The important thing is for the schools to appreciate this special need and demand that it be met. I wish that I might inspire you to go back to your schools, resolved to leave no stone unturned to have your problem children understood and treated.

In conclusion I wish to quote from a report of the National Committee for Mental Hygiene a paragraph which has a direct bearing on what we have been talking about.

"It is becoming more and more apparent that the most effective work in the prevention of insanity, as well as in increasing

the efficiency and happiness of those who do not become insane, must be done in early life. We know that much mental disease and more disaster from imperfect adjustments to life of a little different sort depend upon inadequate equipment to deal with difficult situations and upon attempts of people to live upon levels of activity for which their mental equipment and training has not fitted them. We know that in not a few cases these inadequacies of equipment and this tendency on the part of people to take up tasks for which they are manifestly unfitted may be recognized at a very early period and there is reason to believe that much could be done to remedy these conditions by recasting educational methods and providing for individual needs. This, after all, is the true purpose of mental hygiene."

## SEVENTH SESSION

The seventh session of this meeting of the Association met in the Ball Room of Hotel La Salle at 2:25 p. m., Thursday, February 28, 1924. President Briggs introduced DR. GEORGE D. STRAYER of TEACHERS COLLEGE, NEW YORK CITY, who spoke from notes on *How Are We to Finance Public Education*.

## HOW ARE WE TO FINANCE PUBLIC EDUCATION

DR. GEORGE D. STRAYER, PROFESSOR OF EDUCATION AND DIRECTOR, DIVISION OF FIELD STUDIES, INSTITUTE OF EDUCATIONAL RESEARCH, TEACHERS COLLEGE, COLUMBIA UNIVERSITY.

The problem of financing public education may be considered under the four following heads:

1. Can we afford to pay for public education?
2. How shall the burden of support be distributed?
3. How shall the revenues be derived?
4. How shall the schools be administered?

That we can afford to pay the bill is indicated by the fact that for the last year for which we have reliable data the people of the United States spent approximately  $1\frac{1}{2}$  per cent of their income for the support of public education. That a larger percentage of the income of the people may be spent for education is indicated by the fact that twelve of the states spent from 2.3 per cent to 4.4 per cent of the income of the people in support of public education.

A very different sort of answer to the question, "Can we afford to pay the bill?" might be found in an analysis which would show that without such expenditures for public education we would be failing to replace capital used up as persons who have been educated in years past die or cease to be productive. It may well be argued that our increasing expenditures for public education have not kept up with the demand for skill and knowledge required of those who would be most productive in our modern industrial society. It has been estimated, for example, that we lose in a single year more than one billion dollars on account of preventable disease and death. It is certain that we could make much more of our natural resources, if we had more trained men and women to util-



ize and to conserve them. The issue is really one of application of the contribution made by education to our economic wellbeing as well as to governmental stability and individual wellbeing and happiness. As we come to recognize the importance of the contribution, and to place a proper value upon education, we will find it possible to devote a relatively larger percentage of our income to this purpose.

The answer to the second question, "How shall the burden of support be distributed?" must be given in terms of the whole country. There is nothing more strikingly characteristic of the population of the United States than is its mobility. The provision which is made for education in any part of the country is capital invested for all parts of the country. The failure to provide education anywhere is, in like manner, a failure to make the investment which will bring returns for all parts of the country. Whether we look at the problem from the standpoint of the ideals of our common country, from the angle of the individual's good, or from the standpoint of the economic wellbeing of all, there is clearly established an obligation upon the part of the nation to aid in the support of public education.

Our schools are controlled and administered by the states and by the localities within them. The largest unit of administration is on this account the state's school system. In our practice to date the state and local districts have been mainly responsible for the support of education for far the greater part of this support has come from the locality, sometimes a school district, at other times a township or county.

The investigations of the Educational Finance Inquiry have established the fact that there is little hope for an adequate equalization of the burden of support within the state except as we acknowledge the principle of state support as of primary importance. We have long been familiar with the tremendous variations in tax rates and in revenues made available among the several administrative units within the same state. None of our systems of state aid have satisfactorily solved the problem. The answer will not be found until the support of education on a state wide basis is put into effect.

The answer to the third question, "How shall the revenues be derived?" has been given in no uncertain terms by tax experts dur-

ing the past few years. They condemn without hesitation the present practice of deriving the very great part of our revenue from the property tax, and have urged that this form of taxation be supplemented by the personal income tax, by business taxes, by severance taxes, by gasoline tax, or wheel tax, and the like.

It is clear that the derivation of so large a proportion of the revenue from the property tax as is now the case in many of the states works an injustice upon the owners of real property, and that the other forms of taxes suggested will tend to distribute much more equitably the support of all public service.

"How shall we administer our schools?" If we are to ask for adequate support, we must hope to provide efficient administration. This cannot be done until we consolidate many of the smaller units of administration into larger units. The county as the unit of administration has been found satisfactory in some of the states. In others some other form of consolidation may need to be developed. In any event, no unit of administration should be maintained that is so small that it cannot afford to employ competent executive service. The issue is not merely one of larger school units with their lower costs, but it is quite as much a matter of more adequate accounting, better budgetary procedure, more efficient purchasing and distribution, and more significant supervision. The excuse which existed for the small school district in the days of the stage coach and the pony express no longer maintains in the day of the automobile, the airplane, and the telephone. There is greater ease of communication within a county today than maintained in many school districts a hundred years ago.

Our school systems must be further developed and must provide more adequate opportunity for all of our boys and girls. We will be able to pay the bill if we distribute the burden equitably among all of the people, if we establish a sound revenue system, and if we develop a type of organization which makes for efficiency in administration.

DR. FLETCHER HARPER SWIFT OF THE COLLEGE OF EDUCATION, UNIVERSITY OF MINNESOTA, MINNEAPOLIS, MINNESOTA, spoke without his notes on *What We May Learn From California and Massachusetts Regarding High-School Support*.

## WHAT WE MAY LEARN FROM CALIFORNIA AND MASSACHUSETTS REGARDING HIGH-SCHOOL SUPPORT

FLETCHER HARPER SWIFT, COLLEGE OF EDUCATION, UNIVERSITY OF MINNESOTA, MINNEAPOLIS, MINNESOTA.

In every community there is going on at the present time a careful scrutiny of school costs. The form which this scrutiny takes and the method which it employs depend very largely upon the character of the community, the courage and intelligence of its educational leadership, and the financial situation. In highly intelligent and prosperous communities blessed with skilled and sympathetic leadership, this scrutiny is frequently characterized by a calm and sane attempt to determine whether school expenditures are justified, whether revenues ought to be increased or may be reduced, whether sound budget and accounting methods are employed. In communities not blessed with prosperity, intelligent leadership, and a deep appreciation of the importance of education, efforts to reduce school costs are far less fortunate in character. Here, we frequently encounter a wild, frantic, unthinking demand that school costs be reduced, without any attempt to determine what projects now maintained may be eliminated or minimized, with least disaster.

At this very moment comes the report that a powerful political faction in one of the North Central states formerly characterized by its prosperity and by its liberal support of public schools has adopted as its slogan: "30% reduction of school taxes." The legislative year of 1923 will go down in the history of many states as a year in which there was a fight to the finish between the friends of public education and politicians willing to sacrifice the welfare of schools and of the children. Those familiar with the situation in California realize the significance of the struggle there.

Whenever and wherever the battle to reduce school costs is waged, the public high school is one of the first citadels to be as-

saulted. An interesting example of this is contained in a recommendation made by the State of Minnesota 1923 Interim Legislative Commission on School Finance. This commission recommended that the high-school tuition paid by the state for non-resident pupils be reduced from \$7.00 to \$5.00 per month. The total amount of state aid per high-school pupil amounted approximately at the time this recommendation was made to \$70.00 per year. It is a matter of common knowledge that good high schools in Minnesota were spending sums much in excess of this amount without being guilty of any extravagance. It may well be added here that this proposal of the Interim Commission was defeated.

That the battle to reduce school costs should frequently direct its force against the high school is not surprising in view of the fact that one of the most important causes of the increase of school expenditures in the United States during the past thirty years has been the multiplication of high schools and an unprecedented growth of high-school attendance.

In 1918, the average cost in the United States per elementary school pupil enrolled was \$31.65; per high-school pupil enrolled \$84.48. In 1920, the expenditure per elementary pupil enrolled was \$64.03 and per high-school pupil enrolled \$158.21. From these facts we see that it costs approximately two and one-half times as much to educate pupils attending high schools as pupils attending elementary schools. How large a part these factors are playing in the mounting costs of education becomes evident when we discover that seven times as large a proportion of our total population was attending high school in 1920 as in 1890. More specifically, in the year 1890 approximately three persons out of every 1,000 individuals in the United States were enrolled in high school, whereas, in 1920, 21 persons out of every 1,000 were enrolled. The increase becomes even more impressive when we turn our consideration from the total population to that portion of it actually enrolled in school. In 1890 out of every 1,000 children enrolled in school only 16 were in high school. In 1920 out of every 1,000 enrolled, 102 children were enrolled in high school. Finally, we discover that whereas in 1890 the total expenditure in the United States for public high schools was \$4,759,065; in 1920, excluding all cities of less than 10,000 population and excluding also costs of administration, capital out-

lay, and debt service, this expenditure amounted to \$66,024,307, or nearly fourteen times as much as in 1890.

In view of these facts, there is today scarcely any more vital question in the entire field of public school finance than how we may best provide school revenues for the maintenance of public high schools. It is obvious that the answer to any such question is inextricably connected with the whole problem of school support and that in order to furnish a complete answer it would be necessary for us to consider in its entirety the problem of school support. The impossibility of making any such presentation in a brief paper is evident; to do so would require not one but several volumes. However, no small light can be thrown upon this very problem by considering some of the more significant policies of certain states, whose schools are recognized among the best and whose financial policies, whatever may be their defects, are greatly superior to those of the majority of our states. In the paragraphs which follow we will direct our attention to California and Massachusetts.

#### HIGH-SCHOOL SUPPORT IN CALIFORNIA

The school system of California is a combination of counties and districts. The establishment of a high school is entirely optional. However, any city, except a city of the sixth class, may establish and maintain a high school. High schools in California receive federal aid from the Smith-Hughes Fund; state aid from the state high-school fund and state appropriations; county aid from the county high-school tax; local aid from taxes, bonds, and certain miscellaneous funds. State moneys provided for high schools constitute the state high-school fund; those provided for vocational education by the state together with those provided by the Smith-Hughes fund are known as the "vocational education fund;" moneys provided for junior colleges derived from the federal royalty grant constitute the state junior-college fund. Besides the money devoted to the state high-school fund, the state makes several appropriations devoted to such projects as military training in high schools. It is necessary to confine our attention at this point to the state high-school fund which is derived from transfers from the state general fund.

In contrast to the policy pursued by most of our states which establish a single school budget for all grades of schools, California



maintains four distinct budgets—one for elementary schools, one for high schools, one for junior high schools, and one for kindergartens. Not a single dollar of the perpetual common-school fund may be expended on high schools. High schools must be supported by special taxes and by special appropriations. California adheres with much consistency to this policy of financing her schools, not *en masse* but in terms of projects. If a new project is to be undertaken, a new source of revenue must be provided. Such a policy tends to prevent the establishment and maintenance of high schools at the expense of already existing elementary schools. Equally significant is California's policy of setting up definite standards of minimum expenditure. Thus in the case of the high school every county is required to levy a tax sufficient to provide \$60.00 per pupil in average daily attendance and to this the state adds \$30.00 per pupil. In this way every high-school district is guaranteed \$90.00 per year for every pupil in average daily attendance entirely outside of any district taxes or other district revenue. Contrast this policy with that employed in the majority of our states where high-school districts levy a tax of 10, 20, 30, or more mills without attempting to ascertain in advance whether the revenue derived from such a tax will provide \$25.00 or \$100.00 per pupil.

Attention has already been called to the fact that California draws the money for state aid to high schools from the state general fund. This general fund consists of all moneys received into the state treasury not specifically appropriated to any other fund. The major portion of the general fund is derived from corporation and inheritance taxes. Here we discover another significant policy; namely, that California draws a definite line between property which shall be taxed by the state and property which shall be taxed by the districts and counties. The state levies no tax whatsoever upon real and personal property. Districts and counties on the other hand derive the larger portion of their school revenue from general property taxes.

One of the secrets of California's success in the maintenance of high schools is the manner in which she utilizes the county as a source of school support. Every county must levy two high-school taxes, known respectively as the county high-school tax and the county high-school tuition tax. As already noted, instead of providing for the levying of a tax of any fixed rate, California requires

in the case of each of these taxes that the county shall levy a tax of a rate sufficient to cover the costs of certain high-school expenditures. The county high-school tax shall be of a rate sufficient to provide (1) \$60 per pupil in average daily attendance, (2) to cover the costs of transportation of pupils not living in any high-school district, (3) to cover the costs of free textbooks to pupils residing within the county but not living in any high-school district.

The county high-school tuition tax must be of a rate sufficient to provide funds to pay the tuition of (1) pupils not residing in any high-school district and attending a high-school located within their own county, within another county, or in an adjoining state. Despite these liberal provisions, county high school tax rates are comparatively light, varying in 1920 from .6 of one mill to 3.1 mills, the median rate being 1.4 mills.

Thus far our consideration has been confined to county, state and federal funds as sources of revenue for the support of high schools in California. It may be well at this point to compare the relative importance of these sources with that of the school districts. In 1920, out of every \$100 spent on public high schools in California 30 cents came from the federal government, \$4.70 from the state, \$22 from the counties, and \$73 from the districts. From this it is evident that in California as in the majority of states the most important of all units providing school revenues is the school district.

The district high-school taxes are levied only on the basis of itemized estimates submitted to and approved by the county superintendent who is moreover empowered to revise such estimates or any item included therein. The submission of a budget is compulsory and failure to do so is penalized by the district's forfeiture of state aid. As in the case of county tax so in the case of district tax, no rate is specified. The tax levied must be of a rate sufficient to meet the lawful expenditures included in the estimates approved by the county superintendent. The county board of supervisors must levy a maintenance tax and building tax, if one be required, upon all taxable property within the high-school district, or in the case of a county high school upon all taxable property in the said county not situated in any high-school district. In order that there may be no possibility of failing to levy these taxes, the law provides

that if the county board of supervisors fails to levy the maintenance tax, the county auditor shall levy it.

#### HIGH-SCHOOL SUPPORT IN MASSACHUSETTS

The demand for greatly increased funds for the support of public schools has brought into prominence three important questions: (1) to what extent shall the state assume the responsibility of providing school revenues, (2) new sources of revenue, (3) scientific and equitable methods of distributing school burdens and school moneys. Massachusetts has much to contribute to the answer of every one of these questions.

Possibly no other state pursued so long and so completely the policy of placing almost the entire burden of school support upon the local communities. The conviction that the state should assume little or no responsibility, either for the direction or for the support of schools, prevented Massachusetts from establishing a permanent school fund until 1834. In 1915, six states in the Union derived more than 50% of their revenues from state sources. In that same year Massachusetts derived less than 2% of her school moneys from the state. In the year 1919, Massachusetts frankly recognized the necessity of reversing her century-long policy and of placing upon the state a much larger share of school costs than in the past. Not only did she recognize this, but she recognized the necessity of providing a new and important source of state school revenue. This recognition was given practical expression by the passage of a law setting aside a portion of the proceeds of the state income tax (created in 1916) as an annual current fund to be known as the general school fund. As a result of this legislation whereas in 1915 the state had furnished less than 2% of the total public school revenues in Massachusetts, in 1921, she furnished 11.3%.

The creation of the Massachusetts general school fund was a definite recognition of a number of principles of far-reaching significance (1) That the state must assume a much larger share of the responsibility for equalizing school burdens and educational opportunities than in the past; (2) that this would necessitate the state providing a much larger share of the total school revenue than formerly; (3) that former sources of revenue were inadequate and that new sources must be found; (4) that a graduated tax on personal incomes is an important and valid source of public school revenue.

In creating her general school fund Massachusetts was careful not to provide a fixed amount. On the contrary, the law requires that there shall be set aside annually from the proceeds of the state income tax an amount sufficient to meet the costs of the projects set forth in the act. In 1921, the general school fund alone contributed \$4,165,000, and the total amount contributed by the state for public schools, including vocational schools, was \$6,035,000. We have seen that California maintains separate budgets and provides separate sources for different classes of schools. We believe this to be a sound policy. It should be noted that Massachusetts makes no such distinction. It is true, as we shall see later, that she makes many appropriations for special state aid to high schools, but in the distribution of the general school fund, as well as the income of her permanent school fund, she makes no distinction between elementary and secondary schools. The monies are paid out in both cases as salary reimbursements, going alike to elementary and secondary schools. The income of the general school fund is used for salaries of superintendents, assistant superintendents, principals, supervisors, and teachers. The entire sum is paid in reimbursements ranging from \$350 to \$100 for each school officer for whom a town or a city is entitled to reimbursement from the fund.

Attention should be called to the fact that by far the major portion of the state income tax is not credited to the general fund, but is returned to the cities and towns in which imposed. In 1921 the amount thus returned constituted not less than 64% of the total proceeds of this tax. The quotas from the general school fund are paid out by the state treasurer in two installments. From the first installment are paid what for convenience we may call "ordinary reimbursements"; and from the second installment what we may call "supplementary reimbursements." Ordinary reimbursements are definite quotas paid to every city and town in the state for each teacher or other school officer employed. In this way Massachusetts guarantees to every local school unit a definite sum. The amount of the ordinary reimbursements paid for each school officer is determined first upon whether employment was for full time or part time; second, upon the basis of training; third, years of previous experience; fourth, salary received from the town or city. The salary reimbursements paid are the same whether for a superintendent, a principal, a supervisor or a teacher, provided the training,



experience and salary paid by the town are the same. In the distribution of ordinary reimbursements Massachusetts does not take into consideration either the valuation of the town or the rate of its school tax.

Supplementary reimbursements, on the other hand, are made on the basis of the community's assessed valuation per pupil, and are limited to cities and towns whose valuation per pupil in net average membership is less than \$4,500.

Massachusetts has by law limited the principal of her permanent public school fund to \$5,000,000. In 1921 the income from this fund amounted to only \$261,499.34. In 1921, out of every \$100 which Massachusetts spent on public schools, the state contributed \$11.27. Of this \$11.27, \$9.40 came from the general school fund (state income tax proceeds), \$1.19 from special appropriations; and 68 cents from the income of the Massachusetts school fund.

Massachusetts has shown great wisdom in recognizing the fact that a fund which makes even so small a contribution as does the Massachusetts school fund, if properly handled, can be made an important factor in equalizing school burdens and educational opportunities. Massachusetts has attempted to do this by limiting aid from the Massachusetts school fund to towns whose total valuation is less than \$2,500,000, and by making the amount which any town receives dependent upon two factors: 1. The town's total valuation; 2, the tax rate necessary to raise an amount equal to the difference between the total sum which the town receives from the state general school fund and the total of certain school costs incurred by the town. This difference is called the assured minimum. The details of these policies cannot be presented here.<sup>1</sup> In general we may state that the lower the valuation and the higher the tax rate the greater the aid.

In the method of distributing the income of her permanent school fund Massachusetts has made one serious mistake, namely, that of apportioning it in part upon the basis of total valuation. Supplementary reimbursements from the general school fund are limited to towns whose valuation per pupil is less than \$4,500. Such a method recognizes that a town's ability to provide school revenue depends to a large extent upon the wealth back of each

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<sup>1</sup> For a detailed statement see F. H. Swift, *Studies in Public School Finance*, Volume II, pp. 63-66.



pupil. The fallacy of employing total valuation as a basis, as is done in the case of the Massachusetts permanent school fund, becomes evident the moment we compare the wealth per pupil of towns receiving aid from this fund with the wealth per pupil of towns excluded from its aid because their total valuation exceeds \$2,500,000. Massachusetts cities and towns varied in wealth per pupil in the year 1921-1922 from \$77,000 to \$2,000.

A study of the distribution of the income of the Massachusetts school fund revealed the following facts: towns having valuations as high as from \$10,000 to \$17,000 per pupil were aided from the income of the fund, whereas 62 towns having a valuation of less than \$6,000, 22 towns having a valuation of less than \$5,000, and 11 towns having a valuation of less than \$4,000 per pupil, received no aid whatsoever.

Despite the defects in Massachusetts' method of distributing this fund, a comparison of her method with that of many other states will convince the reader of its comparative superiority. These facts should not, however, be considered as a defence. Massachusetts should forthwith reform her method of distributing the income of her school fund in accordance with the principles recognized in the distribution of supplementary reimbursements from the general school fund. The character of the educational facilities provided, the number and preparation of teachers, the rate of school tax, and the wealth per child, or better yet, the wealth per teacher employed, should be recognized.

Massachusetts, in making grants from her general (income tax) school fund and from the Massachusetts school fund to towns and cities, makes no distinction between towns maintaining high schools and towns maintaining elementary schools only. As a result, no small proportion of high-school aid consists of reimbursements received from these two funds. Of special interest, however, are the policies of Massachusetts in which the high school is singled out for special consideration. These policies find expression in special appropriations for high schools which will now be considered.

#### HIGH-SCHOOL SPECIAL APPROPRIATIONS

It appears probably that few, if any, states in the Union surpass Massachusetts in zeal for high schools. A study by the writer

of more than one-fourth of the states revealed the fact that in this group Massachusetts is the only state which makes the establishment of a high school compulsory. States as far advanced in their support of high schools as California and Minnesota have no law compelling communities to maintain high schools. Massachusetts, on the other hand, requires every town containing 500 families or households to maintain a high school unless specifically exempted by the State Department of Education, and to keep such high school open at least 180 days, exclusive of vacations, in each school year. Cities of 50,000 inhabitants are required on petition to maintain an evening high school.<sup>2</sup>

The eagerness of the state to place the opportunity of a high-school education within the reach of every child is further shown in the provisions made for special state aid to towns not required by law to maintain a high school, i. e., towns of less than 500 families. The immediately following paragraphs will endeavor to describe the most important provisions regarding state high-school aid to such towns.

To towns of less than 500 families which at their own option maintain high schools, the state makes grants for salaries. To towns of this class not maintaining high schools the state makes grants for tuition and transportation of pupils. In both cases, however, the state recognizes a principle entirely overlooked in the majority of our states. It limits its aid to the more needy communities. No reimbursement is made to any town whose average valuation per pupil exceeds the state average.

Students of school finance recognize today that no basis of apportioning school monies is as sound as that which provides a definite quota for each teacher or other school officer employed. Massachusetts has accepted this principle. To each town of less than 500 families which maintains an approved high school the state grants \$250 for a principal and for every full time teacher, provided that the total grant shall not exceed \$1,250. As already indicated, no grant is made to any town whose average valuation per pupil exceeds the state average.

A town of less than 500 families not maintaining a four-year high school is required to pay the tuition of any pupil who resides

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<sup>2</sup> For details see F. H. Swift, *Studies in Public School Finances*, The East. pp. 15-16.

therein and who, with the approval of the town school committee, attends an approved high school in another town. When necessary the town of residence is required to provide transportation also. In lieu of transportation, towns are authorized to pay the board of such pupils. Massachusetts is careful to protect the individual pupil against the indifference or negligence of the local school board. If the school committee refuses to issue a certificate approving the attendance of a pupil in another town, application may be made to the state department of education which may issue a certificate having the same force and effect as if issued by the town school committee.

The state provides liberal reimbursements to towns paying the costs of tuition and transportation or board of pupils attending approved high schools outside the town. These reimbursements vary in amount from the entire sum expended to three-fourths or to one-half the town's expenditures. Reimbursements for tuition are based upon the town's valuation, while reimbursements for transportation and board are based upon the town's expenditure per \$1,000 valuation from the proceeds of local taxation for the support of public schools.

Several factors involved in the Massachusetts provisions are of much significance and deserve close attention. Here, as elsewhere, Massachusetts recognizes supremely important factors which are unfortunately ignored by most of our states in dispensing state aid; namely, the ability of the local unit to provide school revenue as measured by its valuation, and the effort it makes as measured by its rate of school tax.

Among the many advanced provisions which Massachusetts has made, designed to place high-school facilities within the reach of every child, none is more remarkable than that which provides for state reimbursement to a town of less than 500 families not maintaining a four-year high school which pays for the instruction at home of a pupil who, by reason of physical disability, is unable to attend high school in another town. The state reimburses such a town under the same conditions and to the same amount as for tuition in a high school and for transportation, but not exceeding \$100 a year in lieu of tuition, plus \$1.50 per week of actual instruction in lieu of transportation. It will be seen that if such a pupil were to receive 36 weeks

of instruction there would be available to the town \$100 in lieu of tuition and \$48 for transportation, making a total of \$148 a year.

Thus far we have confined our attention to the support which Massachusetts high schools derive from state sources. In view of the fact that for many years, from \$96 to \$97 out of every \$100 spent on public schools has come from the towns and cities and that despite the great increases in state aid recently made, the towns are still contributing approximately \$88 out of every \$100 provided for public schools, the importance of the local unit in the Massachusetts school support is evident. Like California, Massachusetts draws a sharp distinction between the property taxed by the state for school purposes and the property taxed by local units. California derives by far the greatest proportion of her state school money from corporation taxes; Massachusetts from a state income tax. In both states the right to tax real and personal property is reserved to the local units; in California, to counties and districts; in Massachusetts, to cities and towns.

Another respect in which the systems of school finance in these two states are similar is that both contain provisions which preclude the possibility of any community in the state escaping a school tax. California does this through providing for the levying of compulsory county taxes sufficient to raise \$30 per elementary school pupil and \$60 per high-school pupil. Massachusetts specifies a long list of school facilities which every town and city must provide, including not only school buildings and instruction, but skilled supervision, attendance officers, school physicians, free textbooks, and certain other facilities. But the Massachusetts law does not stop here. It makes compulsory the levying of a local tax sufficient to finance these facilities, and provides heavy cash penalty which shall be imposed upon any town failing to provide the facilities required by law; the proceeds of such penalties to be used to provide the same. The effectiveness of this provision is evident from the fact that, as far as the writer has been able to discover, it is never necessary to impose this penalty.

Another significant feature found in the systems of school support of both these two states is the absence of any limit upon the rate of school tax which may be levied for maintenance purposes. In Arkansas the constitution places a limit of 12 mills upon the rate of



school tax which may be levied for all purposes, including maintenance, debt service, and buildings. Many other states, by law or constitution, have limited the taxing powers of public corporations. Massachusetts has never placed any limit upon the tax rates which towns may levy, and California, in 1921, removed all previously existing limits.

The comparisons just presented, together with the separate accounts given, will, it is hoped, suggest many lessons which we may learn from two of our most progressive states as to how we may improve our systems and policies of high-school support. In closing it may be well to point out that new sources of revenue are imperative. Of these, among the most promising are state corporation taxes, state income taxes, and state severance taxes. Superior as are the systems of California and Massachusetts to those of the majority of our states, a study of each of these states will reveal glaring and disastrous inequalities among school districts and counties in California, and among towns and cities in Massachusetts in ability to provide school revenues, in tax rates levied, and in facilities provided. An impersonal and unprejudiced survey of the situation must inevitably lead to one conclusion—that the equalization of educational opportunities, of school burdens, and school revenues can only come through placing a larger and larger proportion of the burden of school costs upon the state.

Despite many sane and well advised efforts being made at the present time, and despite the cry of certain self-seeking and visionless critics of the American public schools, to the question, shall educational opportunities and school costs be reduced or increased, the American public will give only one answer. From the most backward sections of our country, where the writer has come in contact with rural schools reporting an enrollment of one hundred sixty pupils under one teacher, to the prosperous cities of the North, extends an unbroken army of patriotic citizens who realize that the richest nation on the earth must, can, and will democratize education. Despite well recognized defects, the American public school system is the proudest achievement of our republic, and in this system no unit is more significant, more deserving of public respect and support than the American high school. It would be difficult to find a clearer statement of the significance of this institution than that presented by



Keith and Bagley in their admirable little volume, *The Nation and the School*. They write (p. 131): "The American high school has justified its existence. It is true that one-half of the recruits from the national army had had not more than six years of schooling, but even so . . . of the other half the proportion that had reached the advanced work of the high school and the college was far larger than in any other country. . . . It is well to remember the illiterates, the limited illiterates, the physical defects and the un-Americanized immigrants . . . but it would be most unfortunate to be blind to the real achievements of our educational system, and among these the record of the high school is the one in which we may glory the most."

*BUSINESS MEETING*

The President reported that he had appointed two committees for the study of two current high-school problems. It was moved and carried that this matter be left to the succeeding administration.

PRINCIPAL EDWARD RYNEARSON, President of the National Honor Society, made a report on the growth of the organization. He stated that there were two hundred local societies, that fifty societies were today asking for admission and that some six thousand members were now wearing the emblem of the organization. It was moved that a booklet giving information about the National Honor Society be published and sent to the members of the Association. Carried.

The secretary reported that PRINCIPAL C. P. BRIGGS OF LAKEWOOD, OHIO, PRINCIPAL M. R. McDANIEL OF OAK PARK, ILLINOIS, and PRINCIPAL EDWARD RYNEARSON OF PITTSBURGH, PENNSYLVANIA, were nominated to succeed themselves as members of the National Council. The nominees were re-elected.

PRINCIPAL JOSEPH G. MASTERS, CENTRAL HIGH SCHOOL, OMAHA, NEBRASKA, reported that the auditing committee had scanned the books of the treasurer of the Association and found them correct and in good condition. On motion the report of the auditing committee was accepted.

PRINCIPAL T. J. MCCORMACK, LASALLE-PERU TOWNSHIP HIGH SCHOOL, LASALLE, ILLINOIS, moved that the secretary be granted five hundred dollars (\$500.00) for clerical services. Carried.

PRINCIPAL H. V. KEPNER, WEST SIDE HIGH SCHOOL, DENVER, COLORADO, chairman of the committee on necrology, reported for the committee:

MR. M. L. BEANBLOSSOM, PRINCIPAL OF LAWRENCEVILLE TOWNSHIP HIGH SCHOOL, LAWRENCEVILLE, ILLINOIS.

MR. FRANCIS M. BRAY, PRINCIPAL HIGH SCHOOL, EAU CLAIRE, WISCONSIN. He was a highly respected and efficient school leader.

MR. ROBERT G. KINKEAD, PRINCIPAL OF CRESTVIEW JUNIOR HIGH SCHOOL, COLUMBUS, OHIO. He was a graduate of Marietta College. Later he was superintendent of schools of Kirkwood, Missouri. He was one of the pioneers in junior high-school work in Ohio.

DR. HARRY A. KELLER, PRINCIPAL OF THE HIGH SCHOOL OF GERMANTOWN, PENNSYLVANIA. He was a recognized leader in science as well as a very able executive.

CHAS. BURTON WALSH, who was HEADMASTER OF WOODMERE ACADEMY, WOODMERE, NEW YORK. Born March 29, 1884. Degree: A. B., Harvard University, 1906. Instructor of Mathematics at Ethical Culture School, New York City, 1906-1918. Head Master of Friends' Central School, Philadelphia, 1919-1922. Supervising Director of Woodmere Academy, Woodmere, New York, 1921-1922. Head Master Woodmere Academy, 1922-1923. Instructor of Mathematics at Teachers College, Columbia University, Summer Sessions. Author of a textbook on geometry. President of Association of Teachers of Mathematics of the Middle States and Maryland. Member of Schoolmasters' Association of New York City and Vicinity. Member of National Council of Teachers of Mathematics. Member of Association of Colleges and Preparatory Schools of the Middle States and Maryland. Died July 13, 1923.

WILLIAM M. BUTLER, PRINCIPAL, YEATMAN HIGH SCHOOL, ST. LOUIS, MISSOURI.

William M. Butler died suddenly March 28, 1923, while actively engaged in the discharge of his school duty. No indication of illness preceded his sudden death. He was vigorous for his age, and no one would have guessed that he was approaching seventy years of age.

His father was a school man before him, serving as principal of a St. Louis elementary school for over twenty years, and in other connections as a valued school official.

William M. Butler graduated from Central High School, St. Louis, in June, 1873, at the head of his class, receiving the honor of an award of a scholarship to Washington University. He transferred from this institution to Princeton University, graduating from Princeton with the class of 1877. In the year following, he was appointed as teacher in the Branch High School of St. Louis.

For forty-six years he continued to serve the St. Louis schools without interruption until the day of his death.

He became Principal of the Yeatman High School in September, 1909, and remained in that position up to the time of his death in March, 1923.

He was noted for his fearlessness and candor. He was a man of tireless energy and varied interests. His avocational interests were many. He was a great traveler, having made numerous trips to Europe and other parts of the world. Mr. Butler was an excellent teacher and an able administrator.

Respectfully submitted,

THE NECROLOGY COMMITTEE,

A. B. O'NEIL, OSHKOSH, WIS.

JOHN RUF, IRONWOOD, MICH.

WM. WIENER, NEWARK, N. J.

H. V. KEPNER, DENVER, COLO., *Chairman*.

PRINCIPAL T. J. McCORMACK presented the report of the committee on resolutions:

Your committee on resolutions, before drawing up the appended statement, endeavored to obtain from the membership of the Association an expression of opinion on the questions now most pressing for solution in the secondary-school field and on the subjects most deserving of incorporation in the traditional formal enunciation of our plans and desires. To this end, over four hundred postal cards were addressed to our members in different parts of the country asking for suggestions not only from them but from their friends. Outside of the committee's own suggestions, eight replies were received—or only twelve in all. Nevertheless, the replies were voluminous and referred to a multitude of different and equally important topics. To make them all the subject of special resolutions would have been a strain upon our capacities for execution. It was thought better, therefore, to abide by the general consensus of opinion that standing committees for the disposition of all these questions should be appointed and that the specific suggestions gained from the referendum and now in the hands of the committee on resolutions be referred to these new organs of the Association. If the committees suggested are appointed, the material in question may be obtained from the secretary. Two specific resolutions, however, were deemed of sufficient importance to receive special mention in this report.

I. GENERAL. STANDING COMMITTEES

*Resolved*, That in view of the fact that the committee on the reorganization of secondary schools has ceased to issue reports, the

president and executive committee of this Association be instructed to appoint standing committees for the consideration of each of the pressing problems now confronting secondary schools—which committees shall not construct definitive solutions and offer final reports, but shall act as repositories and clearing houses for information on the ever-changing adjustments and readjustments made necessary by contemporary high-school needs and suggested by contemporary research and experiment in the secondary-school field; and that each year each committee shall present to the Association a digest of such information with tentative recommendations in an annual report. We suggest the appointment of some such committees as the following:

(1) A committee on curriculum; (2) a committee on ways and means for utilizing legitimate scientific work in organization, administration, and teaching; (3) a committee on educational guidance or educational counsel to embrace what is now variously termed vocational, ethical, and psychological guidance, and moral or character training; (4) a committee on national high-school athletics; (5) a committee on college relations; (6) a committee on rural high schools.

## II. SPECIFIC RESOLUTIONS

(1) *Resolved*, That the present tendency to increase the number of hours of education required for a teachers' certificate beyond reasonable limits and proportions be recommended for prompt study by the committee on college relations. In this connection it is recommended that the requirements for teaching in colleges and universities be raised to the same standards as are now enforced for secondary schools.

(2) *Resolved*, That the members of this Association be urged to exercise higher standards of critique, tact, and common sense in the selection for use in their schools of the multifarious projects for educational measurement and administration now recommended and advertised as the last word of educational science; that they be further urged to exercise the utmost caution in lending themselves and their schools as battle-grounds for decisions in haphazard educational experiment, and that they constantly remember that the prime object of the school is to teach living children and not serve as laboratories



or dissecting rooms for the post-mortem inquests of educational anatomists.

J. W. TAYLOR,  
E. RYNEARSON,  
J. S. McCOWAN,  
R. T. HARGREAVES,  
T. J. McCORMACK, *Chairman.*  
*Committee.*

PRINCIPAL B. C. BUNN, OF HIGH SCHOOL, LORAIN, OHIO, made the following report for the committee on nominations:

*President*, L. W. BROOKS, WICHITA, KANSAS; *First Vice-President*, W. E. WING, PORTLAND, MAINE; *Second Vice-President*, C. H. THRELKELD, DENVER, COLORADO; *Secretary-Treasurer*, H. V. CHURCH, CICERO, ILLINOIS; *Member of Executive Committee*, C. P. BRIGGS, LAKEWOOD, OHIO.

Lida Ebbert, Lucy Wilson, Frank Grove, Armand Miller, Merle Prunty, Clarence Rice, Homer Shepherd, C. C. Tillinghast, W. E. Wetzell, F. J. DuFrain, *Members of Nominating Committee*; P. C. BUNN, *Chairman*.

PRINCIPAL L. W. SMITH OF JOLIET TOWNSHIP HIGH SCHOOL made a report for the committee on relations with the National Education Association. PRINCIPAL H. B. LOOMIS OF HYDE PARK HIGH SCHOOL, CHICAGO, proposed the following amendments to the constitution:

That all articles be amended to read as below:

#### ARTICLE I—AIM

The aim of this Department of Secondary-School Principals of the National Education Association is to promote the interests of secondary education in America by giving special consideration to the problems that arise in connection with the administration of secondary schools.

#### ARTICLE II—MEMBERSHIP

Any principal or executive head of a secondary school may become a member of the Department of Secondary-School Principals upon the payment of two dollars.

The annual dues of members are two dollars, which shall be paid

on or before November of each year. Members are divided into two classes: active and associate. Associate members have all the rights and privileges of the Department except that of voting and holding office, and advantages accruing from membership in the National Education Association.

The right to vote and hold office in the Department is open to all active members whose dues for the year have been paid.

### ARTICLE III—COMMITTEES

That the president of the Department shall appoint a committee on resolutions and a committee on nominations. The committee on resolutions consisting of seven members to be appointed at least two months before the annual meeting; the committee on nominations of eleven to be appointed at the first session of the annual meeting. These committees shall report at the annual business meeting of the Department.

### ARTICLE IV—OFFICERS

The officers of the Department are a president, a first vice-president and a second vice-president, a secretary, a treasurer (or a secretary-treasurer), an executive committee of the four officers named, *ex officio*, and three additional members.

The duties of the president, vice-president, secretary, and treasurer are such as usually appertain to these officers. It is the duty of the executive committee to co-operate with the president in preparing the program of the meetings of the Department, and in carrying out the actions of the Department.

### ARTICLE V—MEETINGS

The Department will hold one meeting a year. This annual meeting is held at the time and place of the meeting of the Department of Superintendence of the National Education Association.

### ARTICLE VI—AMENDMENTS

The constitution may be amended by a majority vote of those present and voting at the annual meeting. A proposed amendment must be submitted in writing at the preceding annual meeting, or must be submitted in printed form to all members of the Department thirty

days before the annual meeting. In case the latter method is used, such proposed amendment must receive the approval of the Executive Committee before it can be printed and sent to the members of the Department.

It was moved that the Executive Committee find a more suitable place on the program hereafter for the business meetings of the Association. Carried.

It was moved and carried that a committee be appointed to devise uniform blanks for the administration of high schools.

The President declared the Association adjourned.

## REPORT OF TREASURER

## NATIONAL ASSOCIATION OF SECONDARY-SCHOOL PRINCIPALS

January 1, 1923 to December 31, 1923  
Presented at Chicago, February 28, 1924

## RECEIPTS

Balance in bank, December 31, 1922.....	\$ 576.78	
Annual dues from members.....	\$1,453.10	
Sale of Yearbooks.....	136.60	
Sale of Uniform Certificate Blanks.....	30.65	
Honor Society Fees.....	1,380.50	3,000.85
		<hr/>
		\$3,577.63

## EXPENDITURES

<i>Secretary's Office</i>		
Printing.....	\$ 31.50	
Postage.....	95.00	
Bond.....	5.00	
Clerical Services.....	200.00	
Refund (dues).....	4.00	
Miscellaneous.....	1.00	\$ 336.50
		<hr/>

*Seventh Yearbook*

Printing.....	\$ 852.95	
Cartage.....	5.00	
Postage.....	95.00	\$ 952.95
		<hr/>

*Convention in Chicago, 1921*

Postage and Telegrams (President).....	\$ 13.20	\$ 13.20
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*Convention in Cleveland, 1922*

Printing programs, tickets, etc.....	\$ 9.00	
Postage mailing programs.....	20.00	
Clerical help, mailing programs.....	15.00	
Signs in hotels.....	10.00	
Clerical help (President).....	20.00	
Postage (President).....	8.78	\$ 82.78
		<hr/>

*Honor Society*

Printing.....	\$ 40.08	
Charters.....	313.90	
Refund (Charter fee).....	5.00	\$ 358.98
		<hr/>

*Executive Committee*

Meeting in Chicago, November 3 and 4, 1923.....	\$ 398.64	\$2,143.05
		<hr/>
		\$1,434.58
Balance in bank, December 31, 1923.....	\$1,434.58	

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*Annual dues* are two dollars (\$2.00) per member for each calendar year (January 1 to December 31). State associations of high-school principals which join the National Association of Secondary-School Principals in a body are permitted to cover their memberships into the National Association at the rate of one dollar (\$1.00) per

member for each calendar year. The following state associations in order of their admission, have joined: Illinois, Iowa, Michigan, Colorado, Maine, Kansas, South Dakota, and Oklahoma.

*Yearbooks* are sold to non-members at the following rates:

First Yearbook.....	\$ .50	Fifth Yearbook.....	1.00
Second Yearbook.....	1.00	Sixth Yearbook.....	2.00
Third Yearbook.....	1.00	Seventh Yearbook.....	2.00
Fourth Yearbook.....	1.00		

The stock of yearbooks unsold is:

First Yearbook.....	470	Fifth Yearbook.....	330
Second Yearbook.....	100	Sixth Yearbook.....	100
Third Yearbook.....	250	Seventh Yearbook.....	430
Fourth Yearbook.....	420		

*Uniform Certificate Blanks* are furnished in any quantity to members without charge. They are sold to non-members as listed below:

100 blanks.....	\$ .50	400 blanks.....	\$1.25
200 blanks.....	.75	500 blanks.....	1.50
300 blanks.....	1.00	1000 blanks.....	2.50

The sale of these blanks to non-members pays all costs of the blanks, both of those sold and those sent gratis to members.

*Honor Society* fees come from two sources: the charter fee charged each local society, and commissions on the sale of emblems.

*The Printing*, the yearbooks excepted, for the National Association and for the National Honor Society is generously done without cost by the boys in the department of printing of J. Sterling Morton High School. There is charge therefore only for stock. This explains the low cost of our printing items, as well as the footnotes showing the shop where the printing is done—the latter is the only joy the boys get out of the jobs.



MEETING OF THE NATIONAL COUNCIL OF THE  
NATIONAL HONOR SOCIETY OF SECONDARY  
SCHOOLS AT HOTEL LA SALLE,  
CHICAGO, ILLINOIS

SUNDAY, FEBRUARY 24, 1924, AT 3 P. M.

Present: President Edward Rynearson, C. P. Briggs, E. J. Eaton, M. R. McDaniel, Merle Prunty, L. W. Smith, and H. V. Church; absent: L. W. Brooks, H. V. Kepner, and William E. Wing.

The minutes of meetings of the National Council of February 25 and of February 28, 1923, were read and approved.

Mr. Smith reported for the committee on emblems. His report was received with approval, adopted with high commendation, and the committee was discharged on motion of Mr. Prunty and the second of Mr. Briggs.

Mr. Eaton reported for the committee on ritual. It was moved by Mr. Eaton that the report be received, discussed, revised, and presented for adoption at a later meeting. Mr. Smith seconded this motion, which carried.

Mr. Prunty moved and Mr. Smith seconded, that Mr. Briggs, Mr. McDaniel, and Mr. Rynearson be nominated to succeed themselves as members of the National Council for a three-year term.

It was moved by Mr. Prunty and seconded by Mr. McDaniel that the National Council adjourn to meet fifteen minutes after the close of the afternoon session of the National Association of Secondary-School Principals of Wednesday, February 27, 1924.

WEDNESDAY, FEBRUARY 27, 1924

Present: Mr. Briggs, Mr. Brooks, Mr. Eaton, Mr. Kepner, Mr. McDaniel, Mr. Prunty, Mr. Rynearson, and Mr. Church. Absent: Mr. Wing.

The meeting was called to order at 5:10 p. m. by President Rynearson.

Mr. Eaton presented the report of the committee on ritual. It was adopted on motion of Mr. Briggs with the second of Mr. Brooks.

Mr. Prunty moved that a booklet giving information regarding the Honor Society be compiled by Mr. Ryneearson. Mr. Briggs seconded this motion, which prevailed.

Mr. Kepner moved that the seal on the charter be that hereafter of the adopted emblem. Mr. McDaniel seconded the motion, which carried.

On motion of Mr. Briggs and a second by Mr. Brooks, Mr. Ryneearson was reelected President of the National Honor Society.

Mr. Brooks' motion to adjourn was seconded by Mr. Briggs, and carried.

CONSTITUTION  
OF THE  
NATIONAL ASSOCIATION OF SECONDARY SCHOOL PRINCIPALS

ARTICLE I—AIM

The aim of this Association is to promote the interests of secondary education in America by giving special consideration to the problems that arise in connection with the administration of secondary schools.

ARTICLE II—MEMBERSHIP

Any principal or executive head of a secondary school may become a member of the National Association of Secondary-School Principals upon the payment of two dollars.

The annual dues of members are two dollars, which shall be paid at the time of the annual meeting of the Association, or before April 1 of each year. A member forfeits his membership by failure to pay the year's dues.

The right to vote and hold office in the Association is open to all members whose dues for the year have been paid.

ARTICLE III—COMMITTEES

The president shall appoint a committee on resolutions and a committee on nominations. The committee on resolutions consisting of seven members to be appointed at least two months before the annual meeting; the committee on nominations of eleven to be appointed at the first session of the annual meeting. These committees shall report at the annual business meeting of the Association.

ARTICLE IV—OFFICERS

The officers of the Association are a president, a first vice-president and a second vice-president, a secretary, a treasurer (or a secretary-treasurer), an executive committee of the four officers named, *ex officio*, and three additional members.

The duties of the president, vice-president, secretary, and treasurer are such as usually appertain to these officers. It is the duty of the executive committee to co-operate with the president in prepar-

ing the program of the meetings of the Association, and in carrying out the actions of the Association.

#### ARTICLE V—MEETINGS

The Association will hold one meeting a year. This annual meeting is held at the time and place of the meeting of the Department of Superintendence of the National Education Association.

#### ARTICLE VI—AMENDMENTS

The constitution may be amended by a majority vote of those present and voting at the annual meeting. A proposed amendment must be submitted in writing at the preceding annual meeting, or must be submitted in printed form to all members of the Association thirty days before the annual meeting. In case the latter method is used, such proposed amendment must receive the approval of the Executive Committee before it can be printed and sent to the members of the Association.





